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CAMPING IN EDUCATION

The passing of another summer season serves once again as a reminder of the value of camps and camping. The prevalent torrid temperatures have this year added point to the reminder, and we may be sure that more has been said and written concerning camps and camping than ever before. Among the statements on the subject found in the daily press is one by Elmer D. Mitchell, director of intramural sports and associate professor of physical education at the University of Michigan, published in the *New York Sun*.

Summer camps, now more than fifty years old as an organized activity, offer a growing opportunity for education to both children and adults, according to Professor Elmer D. Mitchell, director of intramural education at the University of Michigan. In addition, he points out in a report on the extent of this activity, organized camping offers vocational opportunities to trained but unemployed teachers.

"National organization of social or group camps was attained in 1884, but for years camping remained mainly an individual recreation," Professor Mitchell points out in a report dealing with this activity. "The coming of the automobile, however, made access to the best camp sites easy and tended to concentrate camps in the most favorable areas. In recent years educators have further determined that summer camps for children, with supervised play, health instruction, and nature-study are superior to the old 'do-nothing' vacation, and even more popular with children."

The next step, already under way in this country and well started in Europe, is the formation of adult camps especially for city workers who cannot afford extensive individual or family vacations, says Professor Mitchell. These camps will do much in the way of recreation, adult education, nature-study, music, dramatics, and other cultural activities as well as character training for youth. A new type of teacher, the camp counselor, is already coming into demand for this kind of work, he points out. . . .

"Beside the great benefits derived by those attending organized camps, the camps themselves should become an important industry in certain parts of the state most needing them. Ultimately, also, the camp-counselor field may absorb some of the trained teachers who are unable to secure profitable employment."

The bald fact is that, with all the rapid development in recent years of summer camps as private ventures for profit and as projects of charitable organizations, we have scarcely begun to realize the importance of these camps for modern life and education. The need of children and youth for such camps and for the contact with nature that they provide can readily be brought home to us by calling to mind the vast and densely populated sections of our ugly industrial cities in which scarcely a spear of grass grows and which are devoid of lower animal life other than vermin and the English sparrow. What might be the possibilities of camps for young denizens of these sections can in some part be appreciated by reading in this issue of the *School Review* Professor Esther Crane's stirring description of the camp at Wegscheide, maintained through official connections with the public-school system at Frankfort on the Main, Germany. Is it too much to expect that all our larger cities will in time develop camps for children and youth as parts of their school systems? Would such a development not be an important detail in the "new social order," about which even conservatives now speak glibly and which the more liberal seem to have difficulty in outlining with much of concreteness?

In a comment on the value and the need of camps, the variant of this development represented in the travel-camp should not be forgotten. One example of a travel-camp is the Olmstead Travel-Camp for Girls—described briefly in this section of the *School Review* for April, 1933—an automobile caravan which takes the participants to points of historical interest, educational institutions, industries, and scenic regions in various sections of the country. Nor should mention be omitted of the year-round camps for young men represented

in the Civilian Conservation Corps, which holds as much of promise for the "new social order" as any other feature of the boasted New Deal.

THE "SCHOOL REVIEW" TAKES A BOW

The management of this journal was glad to accept and to make available to readers the "Guide to the Literature on Secondary Education," by Arthur J. Manske and Carter Alexander, published in our issue for May, 1934. This article is a careful compilation of published materials unquestionably serviceable to workers in the field represented. However, it is not to commend a contribution to an earlier issue to which the present note is directed; rather, it is to acknowledge, even if belatedly, the approval of the content and the policies of the *School Review* which is liberally distributed through the pages of the compilation. Under the heading of "Periodicals" this journal is listed first after the introductory statement, "The best all-round journals are the following," and is commended "for [materials on] all phases of the secondary field, well-selected book lists and book reviews, timely editorial comment, useful news of the field, and monthly bibliographies, most of them on phases of secondary education." Under the caption of "News Notes" the compilers say, "The *School Review* notes the most important professional happenings that appear in print." Under "Editorial Comment" they say, "Scholarly editorial comments on issues and happenings form part of the monthly literature in the *School Review*." Under "Book Reviews" is the assertion, "The *School Review* publishes excellently written, unique book reviews." Under "Bibliographies Concerned with the Whole Field" is the statement, "The lists of selected references on various phases of secondary education appearing each month in the *School Review* are the best" for keeping bibliographies up to date. Other favorable references are made to the bibliographical services of this periodical. These are terms of high praise and are especially appreciated because they were bestowed after a careful canvass by the authors of the whole field of the literature on secondary education.

STATE AUTHORITIES CONSIDER THE PRINCIPALSHIP

Among recent published statements concerning the high-school principalship are two emanating from officers viewing that position from state-wide bases. One of these is a publication of the Univer-

sity of Illinois and comes from the office of the high-school visitor, Arthur W. Clevenger; the other is an address by Walter R. Hepner, the chief of the Division of Secondary Education of the State Department of Education in California. While the two statements differ widely in content, both bear directly on the enhancement of the professionalization of the principalship.

The brochure from Illinois is entitled *Desirable Working Relationships Which Should Exist between the Board of Education and the Principal of the High School*, and it presents "some recommendations and suggestions relative to certain duties of the board of education and the principal of the high school as applying in Illinois to township and community high schools and to local district high schools where the superintendent of schools is also the high-school principal." The introductory section, on the importance of competent administrative leadership in the high school, urges that in the selection of the principal the board of education should keep in mind that he occupies the threefold position of executive officer of the board, professional leader of the supervisory and instructional staff, and educational leader of the community. The main body of the statement is given over to the presentation of certain "principles which should not be overlooked" in realizing the desirable working relationships of principal and board. These principles are standard content in recognized treatises on school administration but are too often neglected in the actual direction of the affairs of the schools. We quote portions of the brochure discussing certain principles.

1. *School-board procedure.*—The board of education should adopt a set of rules governing its own procedure. The position of the principal of the high school as the chief executive officer of the board of education, his responsibilities, and his relationships to the board should be clearly established.

It should be kept in mind that the duties of the board of education are legislative and judicial in character. The performance of administrative details by the board of education (or by individual members of the board) usually results in lowering the efficiency of the school.

2. *Organization of the board of education.*—In organizing, the board of education should designate an official spokesman (usually the president). (Such an arrangement is necessary in order to avoid the confusion which results when individual board members make public in the community their own private opinions which may be regarded as the official acts and decisions of the board of education.)

The principal of the high school should be designated as the official spokesman for the members of the instructional staff, other employees of the board of education, and the pupils. Boards of education should discourage pupils, teachers, janitors, and other employees of the school from consulting individual members or the board as a whole on matters pertaining to the high school. Such matters usually can be settled satisfactorily by a competent high-school principal. . . .

3. *Selection of teachers and other employees.*—The board of education should recognize the fact that the principal of the high school should nominate all teachers, heads of departments, assistant principals, supervisors, janitors, and all other employees and that an appointment to any position should be made only on the nomination of the head of the high school. (The board of education has the legal right to employ teachers. A board should not hesitate to refuse to grant a contract to a teacher or to any other employee nominated by the principal of the high school when it is obvious that there are others who are better qualified for the position involved. In such cases, however, the board should not substitute someone recommended by the board as a whole or by individual members of the board but should request the principal to make another nomination.)

As the employed educational expert of the board of education, the principal of the high school is the best judge of the qualifications of teachers, and consequently no teacher should be employed unless recommended by him.

4. *Reports by the principal relative to teachers and other employees.*—The board of education should expect the principal of the high school to make reports from time to time relative to the efficiency of teachers and other employees. The board should expect him to make recommendations with respect to the re-employment, reassignment, promotion, and dismissal of all employees.

5. *Reports by the principal on the administration and supervision of the high school.*—The board of education should require the head of the high school to report from time to time concerning the achievements and progress of the school, including such matters as attendance, the progress of the pupils, the adaptation of the school system to the needs of the pupils in terms of school organization, the classification of pupils, the courses of study, the organization of special classes.

6. *The school budget.*—The board of education should require the principal of the high school to submit annually the budget of estimated expenditures for the ensuing year based on the probable revenue available (or to be made available) as determined by the tax rate and estimated collection of taxes, together with the program of work to be accomplished and the estimated cost by departments and activities of the school. . . .

7. *Program for the continued improvement of the high school.*—The head of the high school should be expected to submit for the approval of the board of education a program for the school's continued improvement over a period of years.

8. *Committees of the board of education.*—As a general rule, there should be no standing committees of the board of education. Too frequently such committees

take action on matters which should be decided by the board of education as a whole. When a special committee is appointed to make a particular investigation or to perform a special duty, the committee should be dismissed as soon as it has served the purpose for which it was appointed.

9. *School-building facilities.*—The members of the board of education should expect the principal of the high school not only to work with them in determining building needs but also to take the initiative in planning new buildings or additions to old buildings suitable to the needs of modern high-school education in the community.

10. *Care of school property.*—As the custodian of school property, the board of education should hold the head of the high school responsible for the care of the school plant, furniture, and instructional equipment, and for maintaining the best possible working conditions for pupils and teachers. All janitors, firemen, and caretakers should be directly responsible to the principal.

11. *Use of school property.*—With the assistance and advice of the principal the board of education should adopt rules and regulations pertaining to the use of the school plant, grounds, busses, and other property of the school district. The board should then hold the head of the high school responsible for seeing that such rules and regulations are observed.

12. *Textbooks and courses of studies.*—By its own regulations the board of education should provide that the adoption of textbooks and courses of study be on the recommendation of the principal of the school.

13. *Protection against interferences by certain groups or individuals in the community (employment of home-town teachers).*—In the nomination of teachers and in the performance of other administrative and supervisory duties by the principal, the board of education should feel keenly responsible for protecting him against the pressure which sometimes results from political ties, personal friendships, church and family affiliations and which frequently interferes with the educational interests of the community.

(In the employment of "home-town" teachers it should be kept clearly in mind that the duty of the board of education is to look after the educational interests of the pupils and not to provide jobs for those who are seeking positions in the school.

In order to prevent the narrowing effects of too much "inbreeding," the board of education should limit carefully the number of "home-town" teachers employed. The fact that a well-prepared and competent teacher happens to be a product of the local community, however, should not eliminate such a candidate from consideration.) . . .

16. *Attendance of the principal at board meetings.*—The principal of the high school should be invited and expected to attend all meetings of the board of education except that part of a meeting when his own appointment and salary are under consideration.

17. *Teaching schedule of the principal.*—It is obvious that the principal or superintendent directly in charge of the administration and supervision of a high

school will not have enough time to attend to all matters pertaining to the administration and supervision of the school if he is expected to carry a heavy program of teaching classes and supervising study halls during the school day. A competent principal of a high school is worth much more to the school and to the community as an educational leader than as a teacher or office clerk.

The address from California discusses "The Secondary Principal's New Responsibility" and is designed to inspire that officer to assumption of his full modern function. We can quote only major portions of the address, which was made available through publication in *California Schools*.

In the long span of life of the American secondary school, administrators have passed through two distinct periods, and they are now entering the third. In the earliest stage the administrator was first of all a teacher. His work was primarily teaching; incidentally he managed the minor affairs affecting the general routine of his school, and he was responsible for all clerical detail. In the main, however, he was a teacher among fellow-teachers. As school enrolments grew, more and more of school management was transferred from lay committeemen to the principal. Thus the principal's duties became less directly related to teaching and more concerned with organization and management.

During the last few decades specialization in administration has increased at a rapid pace. Problems of all sorts have increased by leaps and bounds. Every move to provide for enlarged enrolments; to improve the methods and facilities of handling personnel, materials, and public relations; and to broaden the offering for the pupils has served to increase the responsibility of the principal and to draw him farther away from his original status of principal-teacher. Of course, we still have many situations in which the status of the principal is virtually that of principal-teacher; and in many situations where size and problems are of such magnitude that they require for administration not only the services of the principal but subordinate officers as well, we find some principals still making themselves responsible for definite classroom work, although such teaching activity, important as it is, may be most accurately described as incidental.

At present we are entering the period in which the principal may be characterized as creator. The creative activities of the principal are now directed to the development of a school program more closely related to the needs of children and of the society in which they live. We cannot with accuracy assume that creative activities belong only to this later period. Some activities of this nature have been carried on here and there continuously since the emergence of the position of principal. It is probable, however, that the primary creative energies of principals have been discharged in the fields of organization and administration. The literature in these fields indicates tremendous development in this direction. So rapid has been the growth in enrolments, and so numerous have the concomitant problems of growth been, that nothing short of the genius

that has been so remarkably demonstrated by school administrators would have brought about the splendid development, operation, and support of today's schools. . . .

In these days of pause and critical self-analysis we are focusing our attention with renewed vigor upon what is happening to children in our schools. We are examining current curriculums and methods, along with administrative organization and procedures. We are reconsidering the objectives of every phase of secondary education, and in doing so we are using both science and philosophy to see the individual pupil better. Not only are we viewing him individually as learner and as potential citizen; we are also seeking a clearer perspective of the social world which surrounds him. We are endeavoring to discover the nature of the democratic way of life, the trends of social living, and what school people can do, both to make a better society and to make people better able to live happily in such a society.

It is in this task that the creative energies of the principal are now to be vigorously applied. The principal's assignment in the new day is to serve as the leader of curriculum revision. His task is to overcome the inertia of traditional content and methods, to change the habits of workers within our school plants, and to bridge the gap between the school program and the life-preparation needs of children. In his new rôle he will serve as director of learning activities. Along with this emphasis he will still be required to carry the burden of administrator and to apply his genius in the modification and development of organization and administration in order that the work in the fields of curriculum and learning may be made increasingly effective. The process of reorganizing the secondary-school program begins, therefore, with the acceptance of this assignment by the principal and with his efforts to increase his preparation for the discharge of his added responsibilities. . . .

The challenge to the principal . . . involves two aspects: first, to extend his own range of understanding of the world in which he lives, of the forces which have and are operating in it to affect human happiness and welfare, and, second, to begin the discharge of his creative energies in small projects. He will work with his stronger, more creative, teachers first. Gains will be realized. In the process his own feeling of power will grow. Gradually his own confidence and ability will strengthen. This growth of his will naturally be accompanied by a growth of his teachers. A well-directed program of teacher improvement will eventuate, based both upon his encouragement of the teachers whom he leads and upon the very fact that he personally gives the teacher specific help in the creative activities, in the new approaches, in the new methods, and in the new procedures that are involved.

It is probable that there are greater possibilities for improvement in teaching service in the most traditionally-minded staff than we fully realize. Here is a point where ardent, sincere, and intelligent effort will be surprisingly well rewarded. It is our conviction that co-operative enterprises led by the principal in an effort to realign subject values, to deepen the understanding of the pupil in

his relation to learning activities, and to test and restate educational objectives will bring rewards to teachers that are tangible, and which at the same time will result in the development of instrumentalities through which the educational program of the school will become more thoroughly vitalized. Carefully planned, small steps and small successes at first will eventuate in a mighty force that will carry the whole staff forward in the principal's plans for developing a functional curriculum.

ANNOUNCING THE "SOCIAL FRONTIER"

During the summer came the first announcement of a new educational periodical, the *Social Frontier*, which will carry the subtitle "A Journal of Educational Criticism and Reconstruction." The editor is to be Professor George S. Counts and the associate editors, Mordecai Grossman and Norman Woelfel. The board of directors of twenty-five members is composed of acknowledged educational and social liberals, the majority being connected with Teachers College and Columbia University and most of the remainder with other institutions in New York City.

One may judge from the announcement that this journal is not to be just another educational periodical. In these days, when educational journals already in existence are having trying times, it would be unfortunate if another, no different from the rest, were injected into an already overworked field. On the contrary, we are informed, in bold-face type and in most emphatic terms, that the new enterprise is being developed "to answer the urgent need of the profession for a journal in whose pages the whole complex of American culture as it relates to education will pass in critical and constructive review," "a journal expressly created to serve the emerging consciousness among American teachers that they must participate fully in the social processes now reshaping the fundamental pattern of American life," "a journal in whose pages the major battles of education during the coming decade will be intelligently fought out," etc. The keynote of the new journal seems to be struck in a quotation from the concluding report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association, assigned to a prominent place in the announcement: "The age of individualism and laissez faire in economy and government is closing, and a new age of collectivism is emerging."

The first issue is announced for October. The yearly subscription

is two dollars. The office of publication is 66 West Eighty-eighth Street, New York City.

SPECIALIZATION IN CHILD DEVELOPMENT AT THE
UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

The University of Chicago has recently set up an organization to provide for specialization in child development at the graduate level. The plan furnishes a general background of instruction in the basic sciences contributing to an understanding of child development, such as psychology and biology, and of the social institutions which exert the chief influence on the child's development, such as the school and the family. It also provides the opportunity for specialization and research in any aspect of development, such as physical growth, mental growth, behavior, nutrition, education, the influence of social factors, and heredity and environment.

For the present the programs of instruction and research are organized and supervised by the Department of Education in co-operation with the University Committee on Child Development. This Department accepts programs of work, planned and carried out in each case with the supervision of a special committee, which include appropriate courses in any department of the University. Departmental requirements have been modified in the case of students of child development to make possible the inclusion of appropriate work from other departments. The committee which supervises a student's program includes a representative of the Department of Education, a representative of the Committee on Child Development, and a representative of the department in which the student's research lies.

The University of Chicago has for some time been provided with a considerable list of courses of instruction, facilities for research, and laboratory schools, including a school for problem children. It now has the machinery by which these facilities can be effectively utilized by the student who wishes to specialize in child development.

THE LONDON "TIMES" ON EDUCATION IN CANADA

A writer in a recent issue of the London *Times Educational Supplement*, under the caption "Canada Goes to School," depicts the interest in education among Canadians and describes in particular

the methods of carrying schooling to areas not easily reached and to populations not served by the conventional institutions. The article is brief enough to quote almost in full.

Canada presents at the present day a strange anomaly among nations. One of the largest countries in the world, equipped with enormous mineral resources and possessed of the major available supplies of nickel, without which war as we know it today would be impossible, she is completely at peace. Over the whole vast mileage of her boundaries there is not a single gun; her army is fragmentary; her navy diminutive. Yet she is pursuing power in an effective and methodical way. No country is more eager to learn. Education is regarded as a national and individual duty, and there is therefore presented by Canada the phenomenon of a Dominion patiently acquiring knowledge while many older nations rush to a meretricious omniscience in a fevered urge for progress. One-quarter of the total population of Canada goes to school. . . .

In many respects the general features of the educational system resemble those of this country. The administration is left largely in the hands of the provincial governments; the school-leaving age is fourteen or fifteen; elementary education is free; and vocational institution or university training is procurable for low fees. Something like £36,000,000 is spent by Canada every year on her educational institutions—an impressive total for a country of only 10,000,000 inhabitants. Of the 2,500,000 pupils and students, some 80,000 attend the 197 universities and colleges, while for the 32,600 educational institutions throughout the Dominion there are over 84,000 teachers.

So much for the statistics and blue books. The real spirit of this vast educational enterprise lies not in its magnitude but in the conquest of its difficulties. Illiteracy is practically wiped out; the diverse races which in some parts of the Dominion now work under the British flag are being helped in the adaptation of their outlook, their ambitions, and their language and traditions to British standards by the influence of a common training; there are schools in almost every settlement; the percentage of attendance is high.

Yet Canada is a country with distances so great as to dwarf the journeys which our grandparents had to traverse and of which they were so prone to boast. In the little Scottish village of my childhood weary trudgings in all weathers over five or six miles in the morning and the afternoon were the bitter price one had to pay for a little learning. Today the folk on Canada's fringes would laugh at so slight a call upon energy and endurance. To them education is worth any mileage. It is also worth any labor. The great majority of the university students pay their own way by laboring during the holidays with their own hands. No task is too menial so long as the resultant dollars are spent on books and classes. They go into the lumber camps; they undertake harvesting and farming; they act as guides, odd-job men on ships and trains—anything.

This adaptability of the Canadian student is nowhere more vividly illustrated than in the efforts he is making to achieve the double purpose of earning a living

and helping the other fellow to learn. Prevailing unemployment has brought into existence what is known as "The University in Overalls." It is run by students who during the day engage in the manual work of the lumber, mining, and construction camps established for the benefit of the workless and in the evening devote their time to running classes for their fellow-laborers. They receive the ordinary wages from their employer at the camp and an additional stipend for their teaching. They deserve every cent of it, for the enthusiasm of their "scholars" has to be experienced to be believed.

The phenomenon of education-hunger among the unemployed has been responsible for other strange schools in the Dominion. In Manitou, Manitoba, for example, there is what is called a "Folk Night School." Every Tuesday evening people over the age of eighteen from many miles round gather for lectures on literature, civics, or music. Similar institutions have been established in many parts of the prairies, the intention being to occupy the leisure of those who find it too abundant and to give them the education they are seeking in the most congenial form. A variation is represented by educational centers in cities like Montreal, where they take the form of rooms for games, reading, and classes, a library, a concert hall, and a theater. The performers on the stage are drawn from the men themselves, many of whom are skilled artists, who are thereby enabled to "keep their hand in." The daily classes include lessons in French, English, arithmetic, bookkeeping, drawing, showcard-writing, mining, and geology. Three particularly useful departments with a practical rather than an educational purpose are devoted to boot-repairing, clothes-mending, and first aid. A "barber college" is also run near by, the raw material for practice by the students being provided by heroic volunteers from the shelter.

The scope and influence of these institutions are incalculable. The subjects range from carpentry and dentistry to logic and trigonometry, and each has its army of students. There is, moreover, no compulsion. That is one of the remarkable features of the scheme. For it owes its popularity simply and solely to the fact that it helps to meet a real desire in Canada for education, education, and more education.

Where organized endeavor is impossible, there is the long reach of wireless and the printed word. Special "university" courses in agriculture and other technical subjects are a regular feature of the broadcasting service. By paying due attention to his loud-speaker, the most isolated farmer can be kept abreast of current practice, while his wife and children are given acceptable talks on domestic economy, history and geography, and books.

To supplement these intangible efforts, a library system has been devised whereby sets of fifty books are dispatched to any little community which requires them, the library being exchanged every six months. A proportion of them deal with technical subjects, the remainder being fiction. The popularity of these sets is matched only by the scrupulous care taken of them. In Saskatchewan alone some seventy thousand books are in circulation—and not one single volume has been lost for years. In British Columbia nearly twenty-two

thousand books were lent last year to miners, lumbermen, and settlers. Recently a miner asked for information on coke production—and the necessary books were dispatched to him at once. One librarian wrote to say that, since the library had been kept in the church, the congregation had doubled.

But perhaps the most spectacular effort yet made by Canada to carry the lamps of learning to the farthest parts of the Dominion is its simple expedient of hanging them on trains. The Canadian National Railways have put whole schools on wheels. They are equipped with blackboards, desks, maps, books, and so on, and are run by qualified teachers, who live aboard the train in comfortable quarters, which include a bedroom, sitting-room, and kitchen. The similarity to the normal village school extends even to the bell which summons the scholars. The classrooms travel from place to place, stopping at six or seven communities for a few days at a time, and giving instruction to children of from five to eighteen, who come from near and far. The average attendance at the school cars is ten or twelve. Where there are more, the government establishes a regular school.

Another form of educational train caters for working farmers. It consists of lecture-rooms, where instruction is given on grain-growing, dairy farming, and stock-breeding, and cars fitted with permanent exhibits of crops, wool, and so on, and charts illustrating various points in the economics of farming. Some trains are devoted entirely to livestock, the animals traveling in specially fitted cars, and their feed being carried in compartments set aside for the purpose. In a single year as many as forty thousand people have attended the talks given by the experts traveling with these trains. The number operated in a year varies, but it is no uncommon thing for the Canadian National Railways to have nine or ten on the lines in the course of twelve months.

With educational methods so intensive and so original, it is small wonder that Canada lays claim to being one of the most progressive countries. Did Diogenes change his quest and seek one person in the Dominion for whom no educational effort whatever was being made, he would find his task as hopeless as his search for honest men. In the Indian reservations; in the minute outposts round Hudson Bay—where at one point an aged Indian until recently maintained a little school out of his own pocket—in the loneliness of the great North West; in the glens of the mountains; in the specks of villages set in the interminable flats of the prairies—in all these places education is being eagerly demanded and willingly supplied.

POLITICS VERSUS EDUCATION

The schools in some areas of the country appear to be emerging slowly from the extreme pressures of the emergency. The difficulties of the period, however, have been far from overcome, and there is still need for great effort and vigilance on behalf of education. It is still necessary, also, to have a press friendly to the schools, and one

is pleased, therefore, to meet in the daily press an editorial like the following on "Politics versus Education," published in a recent issue of the *Chicago Herald and Examiner*. The contentions may not be novel, but they are none the less fundamental.

One of the most sinister results of the depression has been the tendency of America to sacrifice the education of its youth in order to maintain useless and worthless politicians on the payroll.

The desperate plight to which public education has been reduced was vividly depicted in a survey recently completed by the federal Office of Education.

This survey shows that "there never was such a demand for educational opportunity as there is today." It shows also that "because of more children and less money it has never been so difficult to satisfy that demand."

Because the spoilsmen of politics are squandering taxes wrung from the people to pay the wages and the waste of hundreds and thousands of unnecessary county and local office-holders, public education is in jeopardy in state after state.

More than 2,280,000 children of school age have been deprived of any schooling during the year now drawing to a close.

One out of every four cities shortened its school term this year, and 715 rural schools were able to keep open less than three months.

In twenty-four states, two thousand rural schools failed to open. In some communities free public schools have been abandoned altogether, and the only children who are getting any education are those whose parents are able to pay the rate demanded.

The whole progress of America has been based upon its education system.

"On the diffusion of education among the people," said Daniel Webster, "rests the preservation and perpetuation of our free institutions."

As long as we have been the best educated people in the world, we have been the most progressive nation in the world. We must not let other nations pass us by in facilities for education and ardor for education.

We must not let other nations deprive America of that leadership in public education that has long been the pride of the American people and the envy of other peoples.

Furthermore, our nation is a republic.

Our government is popular government.

The fate of our country depends upon the capacity of our citizens for self-government.

And the capacity of our citizens for self-government depends upon the training and the preparation for citizenship that only education can provide.

Education is a primary necessity of good citizenship.

Good citizenship is not merely the wish to govern well, it is also the ability to govern well, the knowledge which enables a people to govern well.

"Knowledge will forever govern ignorance," said James Madison, "and a peo-

ple who mean to be their own governors must arm themselves with the power which knowledge gives."

We do not want to sacrifice or surrender our democracy.

We do not want to depend on the superior ability and superior unselfishness of any one man.

We would not know when we might have a dictator who would not be wise, or one who would not be conscientious or unselfish.

We have developed and grown to greatness as a nation under democratic forms of government.

The only certain course for our future development is to continue under tried and proven democratic institutions.

But to make democracy successful, the people must be educated to self-government.

They must be trained in knowledge, in patriotism, in devotion to the public welfare.

This is the great end and aim of the American system of public education.

Our schools are the very foundation of our democracy.

Upon this foundation the whole structure of government, the entire edifice of our republican institutions, rests.

The more schools we have, the fewer politicians we need.

The way to get more schools is to get rid of useless politicians.

And the way to get rid of useless politicians is to begin by modernizing our obsolete system of county and local government.

It has come down to us from the days of the oxcart. In the days of the automobile it is a public nuisance.

By reducing our three thousand counties to three hundred, and by eliminating thousands of useless units of local government, we shall be able to provide for the support of more and better schools and we shall profit by getting rid of thousands of useless and expensive politicians.

Give us fewer politicians and more and better schools.

THE CONFERENCE ON YOUTH PROBLEMS

Even at this late date it seems desirable to make some reference to the Conference on Youth Problems called by the United States Commissioner of Education and held in Washington, D.C., on June 1 and 2, 1934, after the last spring issue of the *School Review* had come from press. The conference consisted of a large number of persons whose work brings them into close contact with the problems of youth, including educators, guidance workers, sociologists, editors, librarians, and representatives of students' organizations. It included also a number from the staff of the United States Office of Education and other governmental services in Washington.

An expected outcome of the conference was a report. It is significant that the first recommendation of the report is for a "continuing commission on youth problems," its function to be "to bring to pass as far as possible the recommendations of this conference and to find, suggest, and support solutions of the various problems of youth." According to the recommendations, the continuing commission would be appointed by the Commissioner of Education; would be large enough to represent fairly the many interests involved (with at least a third of the membership composed of persons under thirty years of age); would have the services of a full-time specialist in the Office of Education and the assistance of a small advisory committee, the members of which would be active in the fields of labor, agriculture, industry, social work, and education. Among the duties of the proposed commission would be the recommending of plans for national, state, and local organization to assure effective operation of a program in the field of youth; the fostering of interest in the problems of youth by all governmental agencies; the gathering of information about successful demonstrations and experiments in the fields of employment, education, guidance, and leisure; the dissemination of publicity to make laymen and specialists aware of problems and possible solutions; the making of definite plans for the preparation of suitable curriculum materials for carrying out the program indicated for education and guidance through national, state, and local commissions; the consideration of ways by which state and federal assistance may be given to help carry out a guidance program; and the collecting and disseminating of information on leisure-time activities. The report also sets forth "principles and policies" and "suggested activities and programs," which cannot be outlined here but which may be inferred from the recommendations concerning the duties of the continuing commission.

The conference was a timely one and should mark the beginning of much constructive effort in behalf of youth during this distressful period and afterward.

THE EFFECTS OF STATE AND NATIONAL TESTING ON THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

HARL R. DOUGLASS
University of Minnesota

The time comes occasionally when human beings engaged in a specialized type of endeavor must lift their eyes from the intricate details of their work and regain their perspective. The history of civilization abundantly illustrates that the long view is peculiarly necessary in the case of social institutions. As persons associated with any social enterprise proceed into the detailed organization and the development of techniques for carrying out their purposes, the focus of attention wanders more and more from the purposes and fixes more intently on the formal aspects—the organization and the techniques. The school is a clear example of this tendency.

The scientific movement has been of tremendous value to education. It has grown and spread beyond the dreams of many and has found expression in the form of intelligence tests, objective achievement tests, controlled-experiment techniques, statistical methods, school surveys, financial and accounting techniques, and new methods of instruction and supervision based on scientific or near-scientific knowledge and theories. Underlying all these may be found the fundamental principle of "objectivity." To this point of view modern education owes much. Nevertheless, an unfortunate by-product of the trend has been to divert attention from the larger aspects of the picture and toward detail.

In the beginning these developments centered largely in the elementary school. A little later secondary-school teachers and principals began to be converted, while college professors still shook their heads. In the last few years, however, large numbers of those engaged in instruction in the higher institutions have become not only converts but evangelists. In fact, it almost seems a case where "a little learning is a dangerous thing." The movement is threatened with being carried to great excesses by a contingent from these most

recent converts to the idea of objective testing. Because of certain recent outcroppings of this trend which have very far-reaching and alarming significance for secondary education, those persons interested in any type of secondary education are challenged to examine carefully the implications of these excesses for secondary education.

The American high school as an institution owes its origin and development to a demand that a school similar to its predecessor, the academy, with a broad liberal curriculum adapted to the needs of a modern democracy, might be made available for all young people of normal or greater ability who would attend. In short, the high school is the result of the recognition of the desirability of establishing "academies" which would be publicly controlled and supported. The academy had supplanted the Latin grammar school, which because of its narrow, impractical, linguistic curriculum had had in this country only a small degree of popularity confined almost entirely to New England. The characteristic objective of the academy was aptly expressed by Benjamin Franklin in his "Proposals Relating to the Education of Youth in Pennsylvania": "It is therefore proposed that they [the pupils] learn those things that are likely to be most useful and most ornamental, regard being had to the several professions for which they are intended."¹

Franklin's concept was a little advanced for his day, and the tendency for colleges and universities to write the secondary-school program was even stronger than it is now. Within a century after the establishment of the first of its kind, the academy had become transformed into a college-preparatory school, concentrated on coaching its pupils to pass college-entrance examinations. The public high school, in turn, was promptly drawn into the same current, and only the development of a new plan of admitting students to college freed it for the broader responsibility of education as opposed to the narrow task of tutoring for examinations.

Beginning at the University of Michigan in 1871, the practice of admitting graduates of accredited high schools who have completed certain prescribed secondary-school studies has spread throughout the country until today it is by far the prevailing method of admit-

¹ *Educational Views of Benjamin Franklin*, p. 158. Edited by Thomas Woody. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1931.

tance to institutions of higher learning. Yet along the Atlantic seaboard the older colleges, more greatly influenced by tradition and precedent than are those of the Middle West, and particularly the more exclusive women's colleges, have not committed themselves to the "certificate" or "accredited-school" method, and in that section high-school teachers still exert feverish efforts to develop in their pupils temporary mastery of the information which is likely to be asked for in the tests of the College Entrance Examination Board. In large schools prospective college students may be segregated for intensive coaching, but in small schools all pupils in the various classes are subjected to the preparation-for-examination type of instruction.

In spite of these reservations, the method of admitting to college by certificate promised to be the charter of liberty for secondary education. Recent developments indicate that, before the high school has really had time to employ its recently acquired semi-freedom in the evolution of a superior program of education in its broadest and truest sense, the schoolmaster contingent in the colleges is attempting to mount to the saddle again via the testing route.

State testing projects have been launched in a number of states, and more recently a nation-wide project has been promoted by the Co-operative Test Service of the American Council on Education. The American Council on Education is an organization composed of representatives of supporting colleges and universities and of representatives from various educational organizations. In a few of the latter secondary-school teachers and officials are represented—for example, the National Education Association—but representatives from such organizations constitute but a small minority of the council membership. The large majority of the members are representatives of institutions of higher education and organizations of colleges and universities. The Co-operative Test Service is sponsored by the American Council on Education and is operated with a \$500,000 subsidy from one of the large foundations. With this aid the Co-operative Test Service has proceeded to develop a large number of objective achievement tests in the various secondary-school subjects and to carry on an intensive campaign to persuade high-school of-

ficials to give these tests annually to high-school pupils. Without doubt, this organization and the foundation subsidizing it are fully convinced that the project is in the interest of secondary education as well as of higher education. To many careful students of secondary education, however, the plan is possessed of critically serious dangers, which should not be overlooked.

Chief among the claims made for the scheme is that it will make valuable educational guidance possible.¹ In the light of the fact that the results of such studies as have been made² clearly indicate that no better prediction of academic success can be made from achievement-test scores than can be made from high-school marks and intelligence-test scores, the giving of the state-wide tests in the interest of guidance does not appear at all necessary. Prognostic tests, in the fields in which they have been developed, have apparently proved to be more highly predictive than achievement tests. It would seem wise, therefore, to postpone committing any school to the general testing program until some convincing evidence is made available that better predictions can be made by use of such tests than can be made without them.

Among other advantages naïvely pictured by those promoting state-wide testing programs are the stimulating effects on pupil, teacher, and principal. It is precisely these stimulating effects that are greatly disturbing to persons primarily interested in a sound program of secondary education. The chief effect on pupil, teacher, and principal will be, as it has always been when tests from outside the school have been emphasized, to direct all instructional and learning activities toward the cramming of those things which can be measured by written examinations. Even less attention than is now given them will be given to the development of appreciations,

¹ Max McConn, "Educational Guidance Is Now Possible," *Educational Record*, XIV (October, 1933), 475-99.

² For example: (a) Elmer C. Darling, "The Relationship of Iowa Academic Tests and Freshman College Grades." Unpublished Master's thesis. Iowa City, Iowa: University of Iowa, 1932. (b) Albert B. Crawford and Paul S. Burnham, "Entrance Examinations and College Achievement," *School and Society*, XXXVI (September 10 and September 17, 1932), 344-52, 378-84. (c) J. R. Gerberich and G. D. Stoddard, "A Personnel Survey of 10,000 Iowa High School Seniors," *School and Society*, XXX (October 12, 1929), 515-20.

attitudes, interests, ideals, habits, and skills of initiative and independent thinking, and other aspects of personality and character, difficult to measure. The focus of attention will converge even more closely on subject matter, information, and skills, easy to teach, easy to test, and easy to forget.

The effect which this emphasis will have on the educational philosophy of teachers and on their practical concepts of educational objectives is not pleasant to contemplate. Teachers will no longer be educators or even instructors but will be reduced to the rôle of coaches, tutors, drillmasters. Initiative and originality of teachers and supervisors will be confined to the devising of new and more economical methods of preparing pupils for examinations.

It is not difficult to project in mind the effects on courses of study. There are at hand the pertinent analogy of the New York State Regents' examinations and the testimony of teachers in schools which have for several years participated in other state-wide testing programs. The major responsibility for courses of study will be lifted from the local school and from the state department of education and placed in the hands of the test-makers. Local or regional experimentation will be definitely discouraged.

To those who suggest that this situation need not result, it must be replied that the results have never been otherwise and that there is every reason to believe that the situation feared would result, whether necessarily or not. When teachers and schools are compared on the basis of test results, only the occasional courageous or stupid teacher will fail to adapt materials and methods of instruction to the end of making a good showing on the annual examinations. One promoter of a state testing program has claimed that already he is able to locate the good and the poor schools, the good and the poor teachers, and the good and the poor principals and superintendents. With a little more such "progress," teachers, principals, and superintendents (along with football coaches) will enjoy tenure according to the number and the degree of successful seasons, in spite of the, what seem to some, insuperable limitations to judging effectiveness of teachers by comparisons with other teachers on the basis of the standard-test scores of their pupils.

If such a program should become a fixed feature of secondary edu-

cation, the secondary school will have yielded its independence. The control of the curriculum of the secondary school will be handed over to a test bureau or service, and the secondary school will drop back to the old treadmill from which it has just effected a partial escape. There is little doubt that, if this form of testing becomes widespread, the next step will be the use of such test scores for college-entrance purposes and all other objectives of secondary education will be subordinated to that of a psuedo-preparation for college.

Convincing evidence of the courage of its proponents is furnished by the launching of this project at this time—a time when the newer social, political, and economic problems have made obvious the pathetic inadequacy of the present educational program, centered as it is predominantly in a temporary mastery of schoolbook information and skills and emphasizing motives of individualism, competition, self-adornment, and vocational and financial gain. The fact that a proposal should now be made that further emphasis be given those things already overemphasized suggests more than courage; it arouses a suspicion of a deplorable lack of an adequate social vision and educational philosophy. Furthermore, it is evidence that the persons promoting such schemes have none too flattering an opinion of the degree to which teachers, principals, and superintendents have adequate concepts of their more important responsibilities and opportunities, which recent developments in our industrial democracy have shaped for them.

Just how unanimous this feeling of distrust of state-wide programs of achievement-testing may be among the leaders in secondary education and educational philosophy is a matter which no doubt is of considerable interest to all concerned with such programs, regardless of their opinions of the values and dangers. C. W. Boardman and the writer of this article, both professors of secondary education at the University of Minnesota, independently and without the knowledge that the other was so doing, requested opinions on state-wide testing programs from a number of men whose reputations for leadership and clear thinking in educational problems, particularly as they relate to secondary education, have become rather generally accepted. These requests were carefully worded in order to give no indication of any attitude which the writers had toward

annual testing programs. Replies were received from all but three of the thirty-four men to whom the request was addressed. Six were found to be favorable to state-wide testing (all with reservations with respect to the types of tests and plans of administration), and five were noncommittal, evasive, or neutral. The other twenty were definitely either opposed to, or distrustful of, state-wide testing programs.

Characteristic excerpts from letters of those opposed or distrustful are given below.

It seems to me so self-evident that it scarcely needs to be stated here that any state-wide program of testing in the principal subjects in Grades X through XII carries with it grave danger of artificially determining methods and objectives and of "freezing" the curriculum. I am inclined in my thinking toward the development of tests aimed specifically at measuring the degree to which some of the fundamental objectives of the secondary school have been reached. These tests obviously would not be set up in all cases in terms of subjects now given in the high school.—THOMAS E. BENNER, Professor of Education and Dean of the College of Education, University of Illinois.

They almost inevitably, I think, tend to promote cramming. Teachers take them innocently as standards, and principals have been known to urge upon their teachers the desirability of having their pupils make a good showing. Education is hard enough to achieve even when you don't have to keep one eye on the examinations all the time. These considerations have especial weight just now, I think, when we are beginning to feel the need of educating for citizenship. One obstacle to be overcome is the tendency to regiment and mechanize everything. At present these examination programs, in my opinion, involve too much risk.—BOYD H. BODE, Professor of Principles of Education, Ohio State University.

There is some question in my mind in regard to state-wide examination contests for high-school pupils. I believe I should be opposed to working up pupils for a year preparing them for such contests. I see considerable objection in such an organized plan and believe it could be developed to a point where it would do great harm. I do not believe it is the best plan by which to raise scholarship standards, and I believe that the best minds in high schools can be selected in a wiser way.—H. V. CHURCH, Executive Secretary, Department of Secondary-School Principals.

I am utterly opposed to the philosophy underlying the movement for annual state-wide examinations in high-school subjects, which you say is gaining momentum in the Middle West. I regret extremely to hear this. The great objection to such examinations, in my judgment, is that they tend to dwarf the teacher and reduce him to the status of a tutor for examinations.—GEORGE S. COUNTS, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University.

The effect all the way through is to emphasize the mechanical, to fix attention upon cramming and memorizing.—JOHN DEWEY, Professor Emeritus of Philosophy in Residence, Columbia University.

Fundamentally I am opposed to such examinations. My observation is that they have a very strong tendency in the direction of forcing instruction into the narrow channel that is required in order to prepare for the anticipated examinations. The teacher, knowing that she will in all likelihood be rated on the basis of the showing of her pupils in these examinations, is compelled to modify her course of study and her teaching methods accordingly. It is difficult for me to see how we can successfully adapt instruction to the needs of local groups when this situation obtains.—D. H. EIKENBERRY, Professor of School Administration, Ohio State University.

Among effects of state-wide testing programs may be discerned a definite concentration of the teaching in various schools upon the passing of these examinations, a narrowing of the work of the high school consequent upon such concentration and a neglect of other phases of the school work, an increase in the difference of emphasis between subjects in which examinations are given and those in which they are not. In general, I am not in favor of it and think it would be a distinctly backward step. Improvement in our teaching must come, it seems to me, from within the school. This can be effected best by a more adequate training of teachers and by continual stimulation on the part of the state department.—ARTHUR J. JONES, Professor of Secondary Education, University of Pennsylvania.

My own experience with state-wide examinations has led me to be very skeptical of their usefulness. The New York State Regents' examination has proved to be, I think, a very serious handicap to the development of education in New York State. There is a strong tendency to standardize the work in the sense of making it uniform throughout all the schools. I think this is unfortunate because the requirements of different localities can be best met by experimental variations in the localities themselves. Furthermore, it seems to me that external examinations, such as these tests usually are, are in danger of confusing pupils because of their emphasis on matters that may have been taken up in the courses as conducted but were never given the prominence which they receive in the examinations themselves.—CHARLES H. JUDD, Professor of Education and Head of the Department of Education, University of Chicago.

There is a real hazard in a general state or national program of achievement-testing. The content of the test is likely to determine the content and emphasis of courses, and the teaching process is likely to become one of preparing pupils to meet examinations. The secondary-school curriculum is in a transition stage, presenting wide variations in the extent to which a certain body of content is recognized. The tests do not serve all situations equally well. Also, they do not cover all the educational outcomes recognized by the school program. There are advantages in the use of standardized tests properly handled and properly

interpreted by teachers and administrators. There are serious hazards, however, and care should be exercised when such a program is adopted to insure that the advantages are not more than offset by injurious effects.—GRAYSON N. KEFAUVER, Dean of School of Education, Stanford University.

I recall that, while I was still at Minnesota, the question was raised whether the University should embark on a program of scholarship contests and that I expressed myself as somewhat unfavorable to such a plan. At their worst, these scholarship-contest programs can be criticized negatively for emphasizing objectives and kinds of learning that can be measured by the present-day objective examination and tend to ignore the more intangible and what may be the more important outcomes of secondary-school education. At their best, they afford considerable stimulation of types of learning that can be tested in this way.—LEONARD V. KOOS, Professor of Secondary Education, University of Chicago.

I think this one of the worst trends in American secondary education. There is little that is good about it, much that is pernicious.—FORREST E. LONG, Professor of Education, New York University.

Frankly, I have been rather alarmed by this movement. I have wondered just what it might lead to. It seems to me that examinations have their place in teaching as part of the process of teaching. When they are used extensively for the purpose of ranking schools or for the award of academic honors, it seems to me they have very great limitations. I do not see how such examinations would have assisted the educative process in any school or school system with which I have ever been connected.—JESSE H. NEWLON, Professor of Education in Teachers College and Director of the Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University.

I have watched the development and apparent outcome of state scholarship contests in Kansas over a period of years. I have talked with men who have watched similar developments in other states. Personally, I am strongly skeptical of the value or desirability of that type of program as it seems usually to work out. The tests are chiefly of the informational and formal-knowledge type. As a consequence, teachers teach and students study in preparation for this type of test.—F. P. O'BRIEN, Professor of Education and Director of Bureau of Educational Research and Service, University of Kansas.

Such a program would stimulate stereotyped learning of facts and information and would put the chief emphasis on content thought desirable for college admission. Everything would be subordinated to the test program. The curriculum would become fixed. Educational philosophy would be taken wholly from the examination-makers. It would tend to ossify the whole program. To start in the West the tyranny of annual subject examinations would be fatal to our efforts to gain flexibility and freedom for the high-school program to fit all types of ability. I do not believe that any examination board could be so ad-

ministered that it would not tend to stifle originality and deaden instructors to the level of the traditional coaching school. Why should we saddle ourselves with something that the New York secondary-school men are trying desperately to get rid of? Such enterprises tend to become "vested interests" and almost impossible to shake off once they get a good toe hold.—W. M. PROCTOR, Professor of Education, Stanford University.

In reply to your letter of February 18, I would say that in general I would regard external examinations in high-school subjects as on the whole having unfortunate effects, especially on progressive movements in education.

Personally I believe that the higher institutions of learning can do fully as well for courses and far better for the cause of education by imposing tests other than those detecting subject-matter masteries on a uniform state-wide basis. Some examinations doubtless have value in the early stages of high-school evolution, as I think they once did in New York State. As I see it now, however, the recent examinations are distinct barriers to the further evolution of secondary education.—DAVID SNEDDEN, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Giving achievement tests to pupils in high schools for the purpose of describing objectively their achievement to their teachers is in my opinion a good thing, but I do not believe in a program of testing by colleges, which no longer should dictate the high-school program.—PAUL W. TERRY, Professor of Educational Psychology, University of Alabama.

I am opposed to the movement to which you refer, that of giving annual state-wide examinations to high-school students. . . .

We have found from experience with our own city-wide testing programs that the material of the tests and the incentive to prepare for the tests drive both pupils and teachers away from the larger objectives of our courses of study into the memorizing of subject matter that will fit them to make a good showing in the tests. Teachers always fear they will be rated by the showing they make in getting pupils through the examinations. . . .

In our work in the Denver schools we do use tests and measurements extensively, but in ways that make them incidental to the main objectives we have in mind rather than in ways to make them ends in themselves. With all the prestige that would attach to the state-wide examination program, the tests would become ends in themselves rather than instruments for achieving ends.—A. L. THRELKELD, Superintendent of Schools, Denver, Colorado.

A similar letter was addressed to thirty representative school administrators in Kansas and Iowa, states in which state-wide testing programs have for some time been sponsored by institutions of higher education. Of twenty-eight replies received, eight were clearly favorable to the programs, four expressed mixed or noncommittal

attitudes, and sixteen respondents were opposed to state-wide testing or were fearful of serious dangers. A number of these men were willing to be quoted, and excerpts from their letters follow.

I would say that state-wide testing would help in the case of shorthand, typewriting, and algebra and hinder materially in social science and literature. . . . Continued participation would very quickly carry us back to something that seems to us to be considerably worse than the old final-examination system, in which all teaching was directed toward passing final examination.—RAY H. BRACEWELL, Principal, Burlington High School and Junior College, Burlington, Iowa.

Among the effects are: Motivates work tremendously; teachers tend to teach toward test instead of "life-situation"; it certainly motivates the teaching activity; more drive; our teachers use an outline sent out in advance giving general trend of material which the test will cover; the test-maker is certain to model the courses of study somewhat by the nature of the tests; and I believe the educational philosophy of the teachers and principal is seriously injured.—W. A. CRESAP, Principal, Estherville High School, Estherville, Iowa.

It is my opinion that the ones who formulate the tests tend to make the course of study in the schools of the state, as these tests naturally set up standards of achievement that both teachers and pupils will try to follow. A teacher's success will come to be regarded in terms of what her pupils are able to do in these tests, and she will bend every effort to see that they make a good showing and overemphasize procedure and the type of material usually included in such tests, even at the expense of other fundamentals.—C. W. GARLOCK, Superintendent of Schools, Anita, Iowa.

I think the teachers tend to stress the things which they feel will be stressed in the contest. I have known of teachers changing their methods with the sole purpose of giving more thorough drill on the more technical phases of the subject which they felt would be stressed in the tests.—J. F. GILLILAND, Principal, High School, Hutchinson, Kansas.

In my judgment it would standardize the course of study for the state; it might improve some of the small schools and injure some of the progressive schools. Testing might overemphasize certain subjects in the school to the detriment of other subjects. Also, the teachers would attempt perfection in the book work rather than real education of the pupils.—R. W. JOHNSON, Principal, Senior High School, Dubuque, Iowa.

In answering your letter with reference to Question 1, I would say that the quality of work is lessened and that the work leading to the tests and the taking of the tests becomes boring to the pupils; in regard to Question 2, it causes the teachers to forget courses of study and to teach for the passing of tests; in regard to Question 3, we do not agree with the placing of the emphasis.—O. B. REED, Principal, High School, Burlington, Kansas.

It is my personal opinion that the state-wide examination scheme has exactly the same effect as the Regents' examinations in New York and that there the emphasis is placed upon having the pupils do well on the examinations instead of being concerned with their all-round development and growth. I believe that it narrows the program down to the barest husks of the educational offering and, if pushed far enough, will defeat any effort for the reorganization of secondary education. We are opposed to the whole business.—TRUMAN G. REED, Principal, East High School, Wichita, Kansas.

As I see it, the worst objection to the tests was that they led to artificial cramming. The teachers used old tests for cramming material. The outcome of these tests in small towns affected the tenure of the teachers. There was considerable rivalry between small high schools, and I know that considerable abuse resulted. We have interviewed applicants for positions in this school whose chief qualifications, as they stated them, were that they had had certain classes which made high rankings on the tests.—H. H. ROBINSON, Principal, Senior High School, Augusta, Kansas.

Although the state-wide tests may have encouraged certain individuals to do more effectual teaching, there is reason to doubt that, on the whole and average, they bring about any considerable improvement in the effectiveness of teaching. Since the tests generally are factual, it stands to reason that many teachers merely attempt to make their classes test-wise.

It is my opinion that the tests have encouraged pupils to become collectors of facts rather than weighers of values. Too many teachers make the testing program an end in itself. Such teachers often ignore opportunities for individual help and guidance in their anxiety to have their classes produce a relatively high score in the state-wide tests.—W. D. WOLFE, Superintendent of Schools, Atchison, Kansas.

If the tests could be given so that special preparation for them would not be made, they would be of value in comparing the work of different pupils and of one school with another. In practice, I understand that some schools have accumulated extensive libraries of all the tests they are able to procure. They make the taking of these tests the objective of the year's work, in some cases, we are told. We would be inclined to doubt that it would be possible to set up a testing scheme which would be free from all these evils. We would doubt, too, that, considering all our experiences with the scheme as worked here, it has much permanent value.—O. R. YOUNG, Principal, Senior High School, Leavenworth, Kansas.

It is pertinent to mention that among those opposed to the state testing program were principals whose schools ranked very close to the top for one or more years.

A respectable minority of the administrators favored the testing

programs. The reasons mentioned in their letters for this attitude center in the following advantages: (1) facilitates comparison of the work of different teachers, (2) facilitates comparison of the work of a given school with that of others, (3) furnishes a better basis for school marks, (4) stimulates the teacher to greater efforts, (5) stimulates the pupils to greater efforts, (6) interests the teachers in objective tests, and (7) gives pupils training in taking tests. Still others wrote strongly unfavorable letters but preferred not to be quoted.

Were the advantages of state-wide testing much greater than they are, were those which are of doubtful existence truly real, were the large majority of teachers and administrators in favor of the program—were all these things true, there would still remain one objection which would more than outweigh all those considerations, namely, *the certain direction of teaching and learning effort toward measurable factual outcomes of teaching and away from the relatively immeasurable outcomes—ideals, attitudes, interests, and tastes*. In addition to this criticism, the following considerations may be charged to the debit of state-wide testing: (1) the overemphasis on traditional subject matter as compared with the emphasis given newer materials more accurately related to modern needs; (2) the secondary school's surrender of independence in determining its curriculum to an external body, the test-makers; and (3) the discouragement of experimentation, progress, or other deviation from the standardized norms of instruction set by the tests.

THE CHILDREN'S VILLAGE AT WEGSCHEIDE

ESTHER CRANE

Goucher College, Baltimore, Maryland

For several years I had heard of the children's village at Wegscheide, near Frankfort on the Main, the great outdoor school on a mountain top to which every Frankfort child, whether he comes from the aristocratic *Gymnasium*, the middle school, or the school for the common people, is taken for a month during his eighth school year. More than ten years ago the people of Frankfort decided that every child in their city should have at least one month of free, natural, wholesome life in the open; should share a common life of work and play with many comrades of his own age; should learn about birds and trees and flowers by searching for them in the woods and meadows, as well as by reading about them in books; and should have the joy of following a winding stream, building dams out of stones, and watching the sunset from a mountain top. From an abandoned training camp for soldiers on the top of a low mountain forty-five miles from Frankfort, they made a children's village, to which they have sent every summer since 1921 from five to seven thousand school children for a month of play and study in the great out-of-doors. I had heard that the pupils go there in regular classes with teachers whom they have known for many years, as is possible in Germany where school children usually have the same teacher in mathematics for at least three years, often for six, and where the same continuity of instructors is preserved in all the other important subjects. I knew that the children's village is not in any sense a summer camp or a vacation enterprise but that it takes the place of one month's regular schooling, the children being given three hours of definite instruction every day. For several years I had planned to visit this children's village, and in the summer of 1933 I was able to carry out my plan.

I arrived at Wegscheide in the middle of the afternoon and strolled along the streets of the little village practically unnoticed. It was

the hour for afternoon coffee, and most of the classes had brought the wooden tables out of their houses and were sitting in the sunshine. Some children in the groups had already obtained their provisions and were spreading thick slices of bread with strawberry jam and holding out their cups to be filled by the children who were serving; others were singing lustily as they waited for their officers of the day to return from the common kitchen, where I saw them standing in line with huge coffee pots and boxes in their hands, waiting to receive the portions for their groups.

The former soldiers' barracks had been transformed into homes for the children by the simple process of running a partition through each building to divide it into two parts. In each half is housed a class of from twenty to twenty-five boys or girls, who have usually been together in school for seven years and therefore know each other well. A tiny separate room is set aside for the teacher. The boys and girls have been allowed a free hand in the decoration of these houses. Whereas in most communities children are punished for marking or painting or carving on any buildings, no matter how ugly the structures may be, in this village the children can be encouraged in all their creative efforts. I saw several buildings with elaborate scenes painted on the outside walls—a hunting scene, a skating scene, and a group around a dinner table which must have been a lifelike caricature. There were three amusing animals which looked much like the pictures in *Alice in Wonderland*, and there were several characters which must have been copied from the local comic supplements. On the walls of some houses the children had painted, in beautiful ornamental letters, old folk sayings, lines from Goethe and Schiller, phrases from their favorite songs; on the walls of others they had scrawled boasts, dear to childhood, to the effect that the inhabitants of the house were braver, stronger, better ball-players, had walked farther, sung louder, or eaten more than any other group in the village. It was interesting to see how naturally these children at Wegscheide had fallen into the customs of their forefathers, how much these paintings and mottoes and decorative friezes on their houses resembled those in the old Frankfort or Nuremberg or the Bavarian villages, how they had given their houses individual names according to the old German custom, and

how they had painted mottoes and coats of arms on the homes of their village officers—the *Bürgermeister*, the president of the police, the music master, and the night watchman.

I had been told in the business office at Frankfort that I should announce myself to Herr Stadtrat Jaspert, who is the founder and the creator of this enterprise, and that he would gladly explain everything to me. As soon as I began to inquire my way to his house, I changed from an unobserved stranger to a really important figure, and I first saw by the change in their attitude toward me how much those boys and girls love and respect Herr Stadtrat Jaspert. I found him in a tiny room in one of the stone barracks, just as plain and simple and primitive as any of the other barracks, but I realized at once why the children of whom I asked directions looked at me with interest and respect when they knew I was seeking Herr Stadtrat Jaspert. He is not only the kind of man to whom babies hold out their arms but also the kind of man whom business men elect as chairman of their committees.

It has needed both these kinds of ability to create and to maintain this children's village. For these soldiers' barracks at Wegscheide were rebuilt and refurnished neither by the central government nor by the city of Frankfort but entirely by private gifts. As the first of these gifts had to be obtained in the spring of 1921 during the period of inflation, the patrons and friends of Wegscheide declare that only the financial ability of Herr Stadtrat Jaspert, as well as his untiring service in enlisting the interest and help of public-spirited Germans and friends in foreign lands, made it possible to acquire this property, to fit up the barracks, and to collect the money to care for 6,063 children during those critical spring months when the mark was sinking rapidly to one-fifteenth of its former value. The next year, when financial conditions became immeasurably worse, it was mainly the courage and optimism of Herr Stadtrat Jaspert and his friends which kept the new enterprise going and enabled them to take 6,727 children from the worry, depression, and misery of the great city into the glad-hearted companionship of this children's village. Since then five new barracks have been built especially for the children, and many improvements have been made, such as the establishment of a hospital, enlargement of the grounds for games

and sports, the fitting-out of a Catholic chapel, and the erection of a clock tower and a Protestant church—all made possible by the gifts of persons who have been shown what an important part this mountain school can play in the development of children from Frankfort and from all parts of Germany. Donations must be obtained every year for the maintenance of the enterprise because the regular charge for each child is only thirty-six marks (at the time of my visit about nine dollars), which includes room and board for four weeks, railroad fare from Frankfort to Bad Orb and return, and the services of doctor, nurses, and hospital if the child becomes ill. Many parents who are unable to pay as much as thirty-six marks are permitted to pay whatever they can afford, and the poorest parents are not asked to pay anything.

Herr Stadtrat Jaspert told me that every year for the last eleven years Frankfort has sent to Wegscheide a group of about a thousand children in each of the months of April, May, June, July, and September, each group remaining four weeks, so that about five thousand Frankfort children enjoy this experience every year. Because Frankfort schools close for vacation in July, they send only a few of their own children for that month, children who are sickly or undernourished, and fill the rest of the village with children from all parts of Germany, from more than one hundred German towns and cities, with a teacher in charge of each group. Since these are mostly weak or sick or underfed children, they have no lessons but live the life of a regular summer camp.

The three hours of instruction given the Frankfort children in the school months is never formal nor bookish in nature, though it often makes use of books. One teacher may take his class into the woods to study the habits of certain wild animals; another may take the pupils along the river and show them how, slowly during centuries, marshes and sandy wastes have built themselves up into great forests; and another teacher may take his children to the top of the mountain and trace with them the movements of the sun and the stars. Such group enterprises make it possible to lead pupils to think out problems for themselves instead of waiting patiently for the teacher or the textbook to furnish words and phrases which they may memorize. The situation offers a favorable environment in

which to carry on the kind of integrated instruction which is as much desired in Germany today as it is in our own country, a form of teaching which escapes from the narrow confines of specialized subjects and leads the pupils to follow a given problem into its historical, geographical, chemical, physical, and literary connections. No subject commonly taught in the schools is incapable of being introduced as part of this integrated instruction, but most of the teachers introduce little arithmetic, grammar, or foreign language during this month because they feel that these subjects can be taught as well or better in the schoolroom, whereas many facts of geography, biology, geology, chemistry, and physics can be taught in the camp more effectively than they can possibly be taught in the city.

However, the aims of Wegscheide are not realized exclusively, nor even perhaps primarily, in the three hours of formal instruction; they are as many-sided as life itself. The children are built up physically by abundant food and exercise and rest in a quiet and beautiful spot. The strengthening of their muscles goes hand in hand with the strengthening of their wills, both being the natural results of a life in which the children are stimulated to undertake any individual or group enterprises within their capabilities. While dressing and eating, playing and working, making beds and washing dishes together, the children develop a unity of spirit which would have been impossible in the ordinary school exercises. Teachers and pupils come to know one another as comrades and friends and to discover gifts and skills which had not been recognized in the formal activities of the classroom. In working together to keep their houses clean and to ornament them; in carrying food for the class from the kitchens, serving it, and cleaning up after the meal; in planning stunts to amuse their classmates on rainy days, the children experience the comfortable comradeship of a life where each works for all and all work for each.

Herr Jaspert believes that this experience is doing something to break down the great barriers between the different German schools, which usually cause the pupils of the *Gymnasium* to feel themselves superior to the middle-school pupils and simply above the possibility of noticing the pupils of the *Volksschule* and which cause the *Volksschule* pupils to resent this attitude and to envy or hate the

pupils of the middle school and of the *Gymnasium*. In Wegscheide pupils from all types of schools work and play and dance and sing together. No one even asks, "Is he a pupil from the *Gymnasium*?" "Does she come from the *Volksschule*?" but only, "Is he a good ball-player?" "Is she good at pantomime?" One of the middle-school teachers told me that, in his opinion, the teachers also gain from this common life because in the usual German academic circles the teacher of the middle school cannot associate with the instructors of the *Gymnasium*, who look down on the middle-school instructor with scorn, nor with the teachers of the *Volksschule*, who usually consider the middle-school worker a snob.

From Herr Jaspert I learned about the regular schedule followed every day by the inhabitants of Wegscheide. A moment before seven the bugler walks along the streets of a sleeping village with no sound of life, no glimpse of any child. Raising his bugle, he blows, and, before the last note has died away, there is a rush of many feet, a buzz of talk and laughter, and Wegscheide has swung full into the day's activity. Washing and dressing are a joy when done in large groups with jokes and laughter at the expense of the few sleepyheads. After dressing, all fifteen hundred children gather on the mountain top for ten minutes of setting-up exercises in the early morning sunshine. The officers of the day then race to the kitchen to obtain for their classes the regular continental breakfast of coffee and rolls. After breakfast the children wash the dishes, scrub the table, make their beds, and straighten up the house for the day. Then follows the three-hour instruction period, during which they may walk about in a sunny meadow studying ways of fighting insect pests or cluster around a relief map of their region made on the ground by some of the pupils. On cold and rainy days they gather cozily about the porcelain stove at the end of the one great room which serves as living-room, dining-room, and sleeping quarters for the class. Whatever the form of this instruction, it is always broken, according to good German custom, by a second breakfast at ten o'clock, when each child receives a third of a liter of milk and a roll. At twelve o'clock comes dinner, the most substantial of the five meals of the day, consisting of soup, meat, and a vegetable, with dessert only on Sunday. At one-thirty a bugle blows as a signal that the rest pe-

riod is to begin. The teachers told me that practically all the children, for the first four or five days at Wegscheide, dislike this rest period most cordially. When they protest, insisting that they cannot possibly sleep in the daytime, they are told that they need not sleep, that they need not even try to sleep, but that they must lie still and not speak to each other or make any disturbance. Many of them do sleep, and all of them rest. When the bugle blows at three, the delegates from each class rush to the kitchen for food, the rest of the class take their places around the table, and with song and laughter and talk the fourth meal of the day is enjoyed.

After the afternoon meal the *Bürgermeister* of the village, the teacher who had been elected by all the other teachers to serve as chief officer of the community, took me down to the playing fields, where we saw football which seemed very different from our football, handball which was like nothing I had ever seen, and some groups playing a game which was nothing more or less than our own leapfrog. He took me to the swimming pool, which the children have made by their own efforts, damming up the mountain stream until it makes a very adequate bathing place. Here the members of one class were wading and swimming and ducking each other, playing water ball, and racing with tiny boats that they had made.

We went through the whole of the village, and I saw the thirty old wooden buildings which were once the soldiers' barracks and are now the children's homes. In each of the two long narrow rooms into which the barracks have been divided are two rows of cots, from ten to twelve cots in each row, and over each cot a small shelf where the child can preserve his own particular treasures. At the far end of the room are a long dining table and a great porcelain stove, around which the children often gather for songs and stories and lessons on cold or rainy days. Five new barracks have been built on the same general plan. In the new buildings there are a separate locked cupboard for each child, a washroom with running water, and a basin and foot-tub for each child instead of the tin pitchers and bowls which must suffice for those living in the older barracks. It was surprising to see how completely the presence of the children had changed the grim military structures. The bright dresses hanging on the walls or drying in the washrooms, the gay flowers on the

tables, the shelves filled with the stones and pine cones and old birds' nests which all children love to collect, the great wooden circles which held their candles wound with gilt paper or decorated with fir tips—all bore witness to the fact that the children had claimed these barracks for their own.

The *Bürgermeister* took me to all the buildings of their little community, to the bureau where all the official business is transacted in a tiny room with only one desk, and to the village store and post-office, where one woman takes charge of the mail and also sells to the children the few simple articles that they wish to buy. I was glad to find that they have two kitchens for the five meals, one from which early breakfast, mid-morning lunch, and afternoon coffee are served, and another where dinner and supper are prepared. I saw the charming little village church which the Protestants of Frankfort had erected for the community at Wegscheide, and a room in one of the larger buildings which had been completely fitted out as a chapel by the Roman Catholics. I was also taken to the hospital, an attractive building, spotlessly clean, which boasted the services of one doctor and two nurses. I was astonished to find only four children there. One child, whose malady had not been identified was being kept in strict quarantine; one had fallen on a stony path and scraped his knee; and two were in bed with colds. I was particularly interested in the fact that, out of this group of fifteen hundred children, only two were sick with colds and that they were being kept in bed out of contact with the other children. Though it had been rainy weather for two weeks, with no single day when it had failed to rain at least once, and though Frankfort was filled with persons who had colds, here there were only two. I felt sure that their own parents could never have kept in bed fourteen-year-old children who were no sicker than these, and I thought that such precautions probably accounted for the fact that the *Bürgermeister* was able to tell me with pride and thanksgiving that they have never suffered a general epidemic in Wegscheide. If a child becomes seriously ill or is hurt in an accident, they can telephone for an ambulance and have the child taken to a hospital almost or quite as promptly as he could be taken there from his own home.

At seven o'clock the bugle blew, and we all assembled for the

evening meal, consisting of frankfurters, rolls, butter, cheese, and cocoa. No one loitered over supper, for all were eager to go up on the heights for the evening conclave, to many of the children the best-loved time of the day. Here the fifteen hundred boys and girls gather, all the little groups mingling together in common fellowship, dancing those old folk dances which were danced in German villages when their world was very young and playing those circling games which have fostered community spirit since time began. These games were so much like those which I had played as a child on our school playground that I found myself stamping and clapping and swinging my partner as happily, if not so vigorously, as the children themselves. When the sun touched the horizon, we gathered in one enormous circle to sing in a mighty chorus those songs which they love the best, while gazing at the mountain peaks about us and the flaming clouds in the western sky. Herr Stadtrat Jaspert welcomed the group which had arrived that day and pictured to them in a few stirring words the comradeship of Wegscheide; the music master made an announcement about a coming festival; and, as the last sunset clouds were fading in the sky, the children sang their evening song together and trooped off down the hill to their homes.

PROPOSALS FOR A PROGRAM OF EVALUATION OF GUIDANCE¹

GRAYSON N. KEFAUVER
Stanford University

Critical analysis is in harmony with the spirit of the times. During the present period of rapid social change and severe social stress, all aspects of our life are being subjected to rigorous examination. There is a willingness on the part of the people to reconsider and question assumptions that were formerly taken for granted. To have criticized these assumptions during the pre-deflation period would have brought down the wrath of persons who supported them. The critic is now having his inning, and he is often permitted to hurl devastating challenges without being required to propose a program which may be substituted for that which he attacks.

There is danger that we shall fail to recognize the necessity of developing a program which will be more effective than the one under criticism. Changes which involve moving to something better are to be welcomed; changes which involve moving to something less desirable should be strenuously resisted.

The shift from complacent acceptance of existing programs and procedures to one of critical examination has also taken place in the guidance movement. There is now a willingness to examine when formerly examination would have been frowned on.

When there is critical examination, progress becomes possible. Discontent with what we have is a first step toward getting something better. Discontent causes us to search for improved procedures, and it is only through search that new methods are developed. Discontent also develops a willingness to substitute for the old ways new and untried processes, some of which may be distinct improvements over those replaced. While the first blasts of criticism and analysis may jar us, the program that emerges in such an environment will

¹ A paper presented at a meeting of the National Vocational Guidance Association, at Cleveland, February 23, 1934.

probably not be so vulnerable as the old procedures. In the field of guidance the present tendency to examine, to measure, and to evaluate should be considered a good omen. It provides the basis for a prediction that we are entering a period of constructive development, that we are building a program on more solid bases than heretofore possible.

The difficulty of securing reasonably critical interpretation of the results of investigations is apparent. It is important that objective evidence concerning the problems and the program of guidance be subjected to rigorous scrutiny. There is sometimes a disposition to accept objective data as scientific evidence and to give such data unmerited weight. Some persons go to the opposite extreme and are unable to see any value in objective evidence because of the qualifications that must be put on the interpretation of such material. Both these extremes should be avoided. Objective data have significance if they contribute something to the understanding of the problems met in guidance. Failure of objective data to give the final answer to a question is not justification for attack. The question is whether our ignorance is as complete as it was before the presentation of the data. When interpreting data, we are also tempted to take liberties which lead us to accept uncritically findings that are in agreement with our previous beliefs and to refuse to see any significance in data that challenge what we have accepted.

To lay out a complete list of problems to be investigated and techniques for use in the investigation is difficult. It will not be possible to give at this time a comprehensive list of problems needing investigation or to discuss the procedures that might well be used in handling investigations. I shall attempt to discuss briefly certain general lines of investigation and to describe plans for investigation which I am now in the process of projecting.

Types of evaluative studies are discernible. Professor Hand and I have classified the various types of evaluative studies that have been made and published.¹ While the list is not complete, it should be suggestive. The types are seven in number.

1. *Measurement of the need for guidance.*—The measurement of the need for guidance serves a dual purpose: First, it provides the basis

¹ Grayson N. Kefauver and Harold C. Hand, "Evaluation of Guidance Programs," *Occupations*, XII (March, 1934, Section 2), 106-14.

for handling the problems uncovered by such investigation. Second, it provides the basis for ascertaining whether the various needs are recognized in the program in operation. Since the maladjustments that create the need for guidance continue to exist, the program in operation cannot be said to be completely adequate.

2. *Analysis and description of practices with relation to objectives of guidance.*—An analysis and a description of practices give a rough comparison of the practices with the exhibited objectives of guidance—a comparison which should serve a useful purpose. This type of analysis has been used to a considerable extent in reports on guidance made in professional literature. It should preclude neglect of some important objective. It does not, however, show the extent to which the activities introduced accomplish the desired purpose.

3. *Comparison of practices in a school with a "standard" program.*—The use of a "standard" program for comparison involves the assumption that the program set up as "standard" is adequate and that deviations from it involve reduction in effectiveness. A comparison of practices in a school with such a standard, as used first by Myers¹ and later by Proctor,² shows quantitatively the extent to which the guidance program is in agreement with the program incorporated in the score card. A modification of the score-card technique was used by Edgerton³ and by Hinderman.⁴ Edgerton gave attention to the proportion of pupils who had been served by the different activities. The score card has been used also in connection with attempts to evaluate the materials available for use in guidance. Schaufli⁵ proposed the use of the score card for evaluation of occupational studies, and Woellner and Lyman⁶ developed a score

¹ George E. Myers, *Some Tentative Standards for Judging a Comprehensive Guidance Plan*. Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania: Department of Vocational Guidance, Pittsburgh Public Schools, 1926.

² William Martin Proctor, "Evaluating Guidance Activities in High Schools," *Vocational Guidance Magazine*, IX (November, 1930), 58-66.

³ A. H. Edgerton, "Evaluating the Effectiveness of Guidance Practices," *Nation's Schools*, III (June, 1929), 38-42.

⁴ Roy A. Hinderman, "Evaluating and Improving Guidance Services," *Nation's Schools*, IV (March, 1930), 47-52.

⁵ Mary C. Schaufli, "Standards for Evaluating Occupational Studies for a Critical Bibliography," *Vocational Guidance Magazine*, IV (April, 1926), 340-44.

⁶ R. C. Woellner and R. L. Lyman, "Evaluating Books on Vocational Guidance," *School Review*, XXXVIII (March, 1930), 191-99.

card for use in evaluating books dealing with occupational information. This procedure may serve a useful purpose in a local school situation, but it does not show the extent to which a program is accomplishing the desired results.

4. *Comparison of characteristics of pupils before and after experience in guidance.*—Jessup¹ and Lincoln² measured the occupational information possessed by pupils before and after taking a course dealing with occupational information. Hedge and Hutson³ and Kefauver⁴ considered the vocational plans of pupils before and after a course in occupations. In an unpublished investigation Virginia Lee Block studied the adjustment of pupils before and after special remedial service. This line of investigation is especially promising for certain phases of guidance. It cannot be assumed, however, that the changes which occur are caused by the guidance service unless there is a control group against which to check the experimental group.

5. *Measurement of characteristics of pupils after having had the advantage of guidance service.*—Follow-up studies have been made in the United States and in other countries describing the characteristics of pupils who have gone out from the educational institution or guidance agency. The vocational follow-up studies have given attention to the success and the happiness in the positions occupied by persons who had received guidance service. Since these studies have not used control groups, it is impossible to determine how much of the success reported was caused by the guidance service, for the extent to which the same success would have been attained without the guidance service is unknown. Information about what happens to pupils when they go out from schools gives help in improving the service for pupils now in the schools. This knowledge also provides the basis for some degree of evaluation. Such maladjustments or

¹ Andrew S. Jessup, "Measuring the Value of a Course in Occupations in the Ninth Grade." Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Colorado, 1926.

² Mildred E. Lincoln, "Measuring Outcomes of the Course in Occupations," *Occupations*, XII (March, 1934, Section 2), 36-39.

³ John W. Hedge and Percival W. Hutson, "A Technique for Evaluating Guidance Activities," *School Review*, XXXIX (September, 1931), 508-19.

⁴ Grayson N. Kefauver, "The Effect of the Life-Career Motive on the School Work of the High-School Boy." Unpublished Master's thesis, School of Education, Stanford University, 1925.

difficulties as continue to exist serve to demonstrate that the guidance agencies have not completely prevented difficulties. It cannot be said with certainty that the conditions of former pupils would have been less satisfactory if they had not had the guidance service. A control group would be necessary to determine accurately the effects of the guidance service. Since none of the published studies has included a control group, it is not possible to determine, from the follow-up data that have been reported, the effects of guidance service. Properly handled, studies of this type have large promise.

6. *Comparison of characteristics of pupils under various types of guidance service.*—The general plan of comparing pupils being given guidance of various types was used by Harold C. Hand and the writer in an investigation recently completed but not yet published. Nearly five thousand pupils and former pupils in ten cities offering different types of guidance service were compared. In so far as possible, similar groups of pupils were selected at the sixth-, the eighth-, and the eleventh-grade levels, and, in two cities, persons who had been out of school for a period of three years. As it was not possible to find cities without some form of guidance service, comparisons of guided and unguided groups could not be made. Standard tests, wherever available, were administered, as well as some specially constructed tests. Many data concerning the thinking and the planning of the pupils were secured. This comparative method does not give an answer to the question that has been frequently put, "Does the guidance program amount to anything?" It shows the extent of the differences between the pupils in the different cities with respect to the points canvassed in the investigation. Space is not adequate for a report of data on specific points. Several generalizations, however, may be given. First, pupils in different cities showed significant differences on most of the items, some of which would seem to be related to the guidance programs made available. Second, no group stood uniformly at the top or at the bottom in comparison with other cities; that is, there was a general tendency for a city to be relatively higher on some points than on others. Third, a reasonable interpretation of the data seems to be that none of the cities has yet attained a desirable status on all the items canvassed in the investigation. The detailed report of the investigation will make

these generalizations evident. This general plan of investigation has considerable promise in determining the relative effectiveness of programs of different types.

7. *Comprehensive investigation which follows a group of pupils through a well-planned program of guidance and makes careful measurement at each grade level.*—A more adequate plan of investigation involves the careful projection of the program of guidance to be evaluated, actual operation of the projected program, following pupils through the program, and securing as complete a set of data as is possible at each grade level. Such a plan of investigation calls for creative work in setting up the program to be studied and in measuring as completely as possible the results of that program. These experimental programs can be developed more completely than those normally found; consequently, they can serve a pioneering function in showing what can be done under favorable conditions.

This type of investigation can well be illustrated by an investigation now being initiated by the writer. Three experimental programs will be established in Pasadena and Oakland, California, and in Providence, Rhode Island. The pupils entering Grade VII of the three junior high schools will constitute the experimental groups, and the experimental program will be provided for them as they advance through school. A grant has been received from a foundation to carry the work through the school year 1934-35. Measures will be applied to the experimental group at the time they come under the influence of the guidance service. These measures will aid in determining the nature of the guidance service to be made available. Comparison of these measures with the data to be secured later will indicate the change effected while the pupils have been under the influence of the guidance service.

The task of setting up control groups in such an experiment is not easy. It is impossible to secure a control group by dividing the entering class into two groups because it is not possible to carry on the experiment for one group and leave the remainder of the school unaffected. All members of the faculties of the two California schools have become vitally interested in the project. That is as it should be. It is desirable that the full environment of the school be favorable for the attainment of the objectives on which the guidance activities

are specifically focused. The present plans call for control groups of two types. First, the pupils now enrolled in the different grades in an experimental school will be used as control groups for the grades in which they are now enrolled. The measures that will be applied to the experimental group entering Grade VII in September will be applied also to all pupils enrolled in the three or four other grades in the school. These data, secured before the experimental program is started, will indicate the status of pupils under the present program. The data for pupils in each grade above the seventh will be compared with those for the experimental group when they reach that level and will show the differences between the pupils under the two sets of conditions. Social changes during the period elapsing between the time of administering the tests to the control and to the experimental groups will introduce some error, but the plan described is probably the most satisfactory arrangement. A check on the extent of this error will be made in a second school where the program of the school has not been greatly modified. The second type of control group will be made up of pupils at the same grade level as the experimental group in a second school in each city; that is, the group entering Grade VII in a second junior high school will be given the same tests at the same time as the experimental group. The guidance program in this second school will continue unaffected by the experimental program. This method will yield information on the extent to which the added services in the experimental program have made a difference in the lives of the pupils.

All workers in guidance can check up on pupils served. Extended investigation aimed at the evaluation of guidance requires time and money. The fact that neither of these is available to many guidance workers does not give the workers justification for continuing in a blind faith in what they are doing without some check on the results of their efforts. Some attention should always be given by counselors to a canvass of the status of pupils for whom they are responsible. The extent of such inquiry and the form it should take cannot be indicated without consideration of the scope of the work of the counselor and his special interests and training. Keller has well pointed out that something can be done by every worker: "Without specific aid and simply by the application of intelligence and ingenuity some

progress can be made toward the evaluation of programs of guidance wherever there is the inquiring spirit and the fortitude to face the facts."¹ The types of studies canvassed in this article will find a place in at least some of the attempts at evaluation.

The evaluation of any procedure involves examination of a number of assumptions. The final check on the value of guidance involves a determination of its effect on the lives of pupils. We must be concerned with the ultimate result desired. It may not be possible to measure the ultimate effects, and consequently we give attention to more immediate outcomes. There is a series of assumptions concerning immediate outcomes underlying most guidance practices. An illustration from vocational guidance will serve to make this point clear. We adopt certain procedures by which to inform pupils about occupations, believing that these procedures will cause the pupils to build an understanding of occupational conditions and opportunities. But do they? The extent to which such understanding is developed can be measured, and this measurement is a form of evaluation. But what difference does it make whether or not pupils have such understanding? How much information and what information actually make a difference? We have assumed that pupils with certain understandings would plan more intelligently than those without. But do they? Some checks can be made on the appropriateness of the plans of pupils and the extent to which they have made plans, and these checks constitute another form of evaluation. But what difference does it make whether or not the pupils have vocational plans? We have assumed that pupils with appropriate plans would secure training and be more successful in locating and advancing in an occupation. But do they? We thus have a series of assumptions. If any one of the assumptions is false, the chain of reasoning is broken and the procedure is without justification. It will not be possible to eliminate completely these unproved assumptions. The contention here is that our kit-bags should contain as few as possible of these unproved assumptions and that we should clearly recognize assumptions as assumptions and not consider them as facts.

¹ Franklin J. Keller, "New Frontiers in Guidance," *Occupations*, XII (March, 1934, Section 2), 6.

ON THE VALIDITY OF TESTING

D. A. WORCESTER
University of Nebraska

Most writers on the subject of examination questions agree that the first criterion of a good test is validity and that, to be valid, a test must measure what has been taught. Discussions of this factor have usually emphasized that the test should cover the content of the course as the course has actually been experienced and that the test and the course should agree in relative emphases. Less frequently noted is the requirement that the examination questions be similar to the types of questions or exercises which the pupils have met during the period of learning.

Among all the arguments against the essay test which the writer has read, he does not recall ever noticing the objection which is perhaps the most pertinent of all, namely, that the essay examination constitutes a type of exercise in which there has been almost no practice. During the class periods the instructor has talked to the class and has conducted recitations by the question-and-answer method, but he has not seen to it that the child engages in any great amount of practice in the organization of materials in the form of an extended discussion. Even some of those who have defended the essay examination on the ground that pupils should be taught to express themselves in an integrated and organized manner have never seen to it that systematic practice in such expression has become a part of the course prior to the examination period. When the examination time comes and the pupil is asked to "explain" or "discuss," he is being required to take a test on a type of work in which he has had no training. The examination, therefore, is obviously invalid and unfair.

In the opinion of the writer, the ability to discuss questions and to write such discussions in a more or less extended form is a perfectly

legitimate objective. He disagrees with Ruch,¹ who implies that there is no "natural" form of question and particularly that persons, after leaving school, are never called on to answer such questions as "give in full," "explain," and so on. Life presents innumerable occasions in which a person is asked to discuss matters, to explain operations, to describe experiences which he has undergone, and the like. Although there are no figures at hand, it seems probable that one is expected to give such answers quite as frequently as one is expected to reply to questions of fact or to exercises which merely demand that a missing word of a sentence be supplied. There is probably validity in the argument that it is a part of the business of the school to train pupils to participate fluently in discussions on all sorts of matters. A somewhat casual observation of schoolroom procedure over a considerable length of time causes the writer to doubt that this objective is widely realized or even attempted. The interesting thing is that, although no exercise in this art is included in classroom practice, success is very commonly measured by proficiency in it. The contention of this article, then, is not that the essay examination shall be wholly abolished but that the training given in the class itself shall be such as to make this examination a real measure of achievement. In other words, the essay examination, as it is now commonly conducted, is to be criticized even more for lack of validity (that is, that it does not measure what has been taught) than for its lack of reliability. Something of reliability could probably be sacrificed without great loss if this kind of validity were obtained.

In the light of this same argument, it might be worth while to examine the validity of various other forms of tests. Does the true-false test, for example, measure the kind of questions which have been asked during the learning period as well as cover the content of the questions asked? Undoubtedly, this test is valid to a considerable degree. Many class questions are of the kind, "Is it true?" or "Do you agree?" If this type of question is the only kind which the pupil has to meet during the course, then perhaps a true-false examination is valid for that course and perhaps an examination of any

¹ G. M. Ruch, *The Objective or New-Type Examination*, pp. 126-28. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1929.

other kind is not valid. However, if other types of questions and discussions are used in class, then obviously other types of exercises should appear in the examination.

Under what circumstances does a pupil need to use the completion-test technique during the learning phase of his work? How often does the instructor state a portion of a problem, leaving only a certain small part to be filled in? Of course, this procedure is sometimes used; the teacher says, for example, "If it is now two o'clock in New York, it is ——— time here?" In some cases diagrams, maps, or other figures are presented for completion. It could be argued that questions of these types should be used in the examination in proportion to their use during the regular class periods. At least, they should not be used in the examination unless they have been used in the class period to some degree.

It would be well for the teacher to run over in his mind various other forms of test materials and to ask himself how frequently in his own class work he employs the best-answer type of question, the matching test, and the like. Each has its definite place. The best-answer question, "Which of this or this would you do in a certain circumstance?" is a valuable exercise. The point raised here is simply that we as teachers should be conscious of the particular value of each type of question, that we should employ each in a way which will actually realize this value, and that we should take care to use in our examinations the same general types of questions which we have used in our teaching.

We may also look at the validity of certain types of questions from the point of view of retention. Different classroom materials require different degrees of learning. In each subject there are some facts or principles or skills which should be learned to the point of unhesitating response. How many items of this sort there are in any given course is undoubtedly a matter of disagreement. Some courses contain more than do others. It will probably be rather generally agreed, however, that there are at least a few things which should be completely learned. These things would normally be measured by some kind of a test of total recall, for example, a completion test or a short-answer test.

There are other things which need to be learned to the point of

recognition only. The number of items in this group is large. These are the things which a person ought to be able to work with when the occasion requires, to be able to recognize when seen, but which he does not necessarily need to know absolutely. It would be reasonable that this lesser degree of learning should be measured by multiple-choice tests, identification tests, matching tests, and perhaps true-false tests. To measure items which should have been learned to a point of total recall by one of these tests is inadequate. To use a total-recall test to measure those things which need to be known only in context is unfair.

It may be argued that there are still other items which should be learned merely to the point of being able to regain them in the time of need. A person ought to know what sources of reference to go to in order to gain information concerning certain matters. He ought to know in what portions of a textbook he may economically find the answer to some question. This type of learning has not been given systematic consideration, and little has been done in the way of testing its outcome.

Some have asserted that there is still a fourth degree of learning, which might be called "auxiliary learning." During the process of raising a building certain staging materials are required. These materials are not a portion of the building itself and will be torn down when the main structure is complete. They need to be strong, but they do not constitute an integral part of the building. It is possible that there are similar materials employed in the learning of any of the school subjects. There are certain things which one may stand on in order to reach something still higher up but which do not in themselves constitute a part of the real matter of a course. Perhaps the illustrations which point to the principles, the anecdotes, in so far as they belong to the course at all, are examples of this kind of staging material. Every instructor has asked in an examination for some principle and has received only the story which was told to illustrate the principle. It may be that content of this sort has no place at all in a test. Certainly, it should have no place in a final examination. If it belongs anywhere, it is in a quiz which attempts to measure the security of the pupil up to a certain point in the course.

If the preceding arguments be accepted, some marked changes in

customary procedure will inevitably follow. In the first place, the instructor will find himself obligated to determine which things, in his opinion, should be learned to the point of absolute recall, which need to be recognized only on occasion, and so on. Then, these various portions of subject matter must be taught in the light of this understanding; the pupil should know the degree of learning which is expected; and finally the form of test used at examination must agree with the objectives and the manner of teaching, as well as with its content.

These considerations suggest that some investigations along the lines indicated might be worth while. It would be valuable (and the value would very likely extend beyond the problem under discussion) if in some classes a stenographic record could be made of each question, performance, or discussion conducted during the course. These records could be classified, and the instructor would have before him a more-or-less objective picture of the types of competency for which he is actually training. If, as a complementary study, records could be obtained of the tests of knowledge as found in the board room, the consulting office, the smoking-compartment, at the tea table, and so on, then we should be much closer to final criteria of validity.

A PROCEDURE FOR ASSIGNING HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS TO CLASSES

E. E. BUTTERFIELD
John Adams High School, Cleveland, Ohio

About three years ago a teacher who had just experienced a strenuous opening week of school, during which he had checked and counterchecked the programs of his home-room pupils to make sure that each was enrolled in all his scheduled classes and study halls, came into the office of the principal.

"We should have," he said, "a simpler system of assigning pupils to classes and checking to verify their enrolment therein. Give to every pupil on the first day of the semester a class card for each subject and each study hall in which he is expected to enrol. Print this card in two sections, one to be detached and retained by the class teacher for his record, the other to be stamped by the class teacher and returned to the home-room teacher on the day issued. No further transaction between class teacher and home-room teacher will be necessary. The job will be done."

Long before this suggestion by the home-room teacher the principal had declared that there was no excuse for badly unbalanced classes at the beginning of a semester and had set up machinery to prevent them. A teacher with a class of sixty on the opening day of the term knows that the class will be later divided into two sections or otherwise distributed. A teacher with only fifteen knows that the class will be discontinued or greatly increased. As there is no incentive to begin work, there follows a period of marking time until adjustments are made. A pupil in either class will be under no compulsion to begin work promptly since there is an even chance that he will be transferred to the class of another teacher by the end of the week. A teacher none too strong may encounter serious disciplinary difficulties during this interval of waiting—disciplinary situations from which recovery may be slow and difficult.

The home-room teacher's proposal of a class card for each pupil

for each class or study hall immediately received a preliminary hearing. The simple arithmetic of the situation appeared to be a major objection and almost resulted in the rejection of the plan. If four major subjects were assumed to be a normal load, together with minors and study-hall periods, each pupil would need seven or eight cards, and thirty-five hundred pupils would require between twenty-five and thirty thousand cards. Who would prepare these cards? Who would distribute them, and how? Furthermore, the distribution must be done in a systematic manner because the school was committed to a program of ability grouping on the basis of intelligence tests and previous performance.

No one is interested in the intervening discussion between proposal and acceptance. This account would never have been written if it had not been decided to try the plan. With some refinements the plan has been used for five consecutive semesters, with results to be detailed later.

THE EQUIPMENT

1. A box was made for each subject with as many pigeonholes in horizontal file as there are periods in the day and as many in vertical file as the greatest number of classes likely to be needed in the subject at any given period. The pigeonholes measure $1.5 \times 3 \times 4.5$ inches. These boxes were made of ply wood by the cabinet-making classes. The largest box, for English classes, contains 120 compartments with a total capacity of twelve classes to a period in a ten-period day.

2. Class cards for each subject and for study-hall assignments were printed. A color scheme is used to make a distinction among academic, commercial, and industrial subjects, but this distinction is not essential nor even important. Illustrations of the cards appear on page 534.

3. A program envelope, measuring 4×6.5 inches, was provided for each pupil. The face of this envelope is reproduced on page 535.

The order of filling in proposed subjects is most important but may vary with schools. Begin with the subject offering the smallest number of classes or with one that is especially difficult to assign because of double periods. Finish with the subject, such as English,

which has the largest number of classes and is, therefore, easiest to schedule.

The probable learning rate is the local equivalent of an intelligence quotient obtained from a group intelligence test. Gymnasium pu-

EXAMPLES OF CLASS CARDS

12A DRAMATICS	
Room	Period
Home-Room Number	Pupil's P.L.R.
Pupil's Name	
Home-Room Teacher	
This section to be retained by the classroom teacher	
12A DRAMATICS	
Room	Period
Pupil's Name	
Classroom Teacher	
This section to be stamped by the class teacher and returned by the pupil to the home-room teacher	

STUDY 118	
	3 Period
Pupil's Name	
Home-Room Teacher	
Mon.	Tues. Wed. Thurs. Fri.
Encircle days enrolled	
Row.....	Seat..... Date.....
This section to be retained by the study-hall teacher	
STUDY 118	
	3 Period
Pupil's Name	
Home-Room Teacher	
Date Reported	
Study-Hall Teacher's Name	
Mon.	Tues. Wed. Thurs. Fri.
Encircle days enrolled	
This section to be stamped by the study-hall teacher and filed in the home-room teacher's box	

pils are classified (A, B, C, new, and special) according to the scores which they make on physical-ability tests administered by the department of physical education. From 80 to 90 per cent of all the boys are in honor (pupil-managed) study halls. Less than 1 per cent of the girls have failed to qualify for honor study halls.

4. A smaller program envelope, shown on page 536, to be carried by the pupil was provided, the use of which will be described later.

5. A rubber stamp was provided for each subject, small enough to fit into the rectangles on the program envelope. Such stamps need not cost more than fifteen cents apiece.

6. A rubber stamp was provided for each teacher (not absolutely essential, but a time-saver).

7. A rubber stamp for numbering, to be used for indicating room and period on the class cards, was secured.

PUPIL'S PROGRAM ENVELOPE														
Name.....						Address.....								
(last)						(first)								
P.L.R.....				Home-Room Teacher.....				Date.....						
Subjects Required Next Semester Name exact title, grade, division: e.g., Cab. Mak. X B				PROGRAM										
				Per.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
		Proposed Subjects		Mon.	ART	ART								
Applied Art				Tues.										
Shop-Home Ec.				Wed.										
Language				Thur.										
Commercial				Fri.										
Science														
Mathematics														
Social Studies														
English				Gymnasium A B C New Special (encircle one)										
Music				Study Hall Regular Honor (encircle one)										

PROCEDURE

1. Secure the proposed subject elections (or forecast) for the ensuing semester in the usual manner.
2. Prepare a master schedule of recitations in each subject.
3. Give a copy of the schedule to the head of each department, who will label the pigeonhole box for his subject according to the schedule. Of course, anyone can do this labeling. The principal or the assistant principal may elect to do the entire program job.
4. Count out thirty cards (or whatever class size is desired) for

each class and, after properly stamping them with the period and room number, place them in the appropriate pigeonhole for later assignment.

5. Have each home-room teacher, or pupils under his direction, make out a program envelope for every pupil who expects to enrol the following semester.

6. Assemble these envelopes in a central place.

7. Have clerks (pupils can do it) sort these envelopes according to the subjects required in order of appearance on the envelopes.

SMALL PROGRAM ENVELOPE										
Period	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Mon.										
Tues.										
Wed.										
Thurs.										
Fri.										

8. When all envelopes requiring art have been assembled and arranged by grade, the head of the department can quickly assign the pupils according to probable learning rate or according to any classification he desires. Pupil assistants can stamp the envelopes and place the class cards in them. "Art" stamped on the envelope across the two periods assigned will prevent any other department head from assigning a subject to either of those periods. Save time by doing all of a grade at one time. When a pigeonhole is empty, the class is full.

9. As soon as art has been completed, return the envelopes to the office. They are then sorted for shop and home economics. Probably no time can be gained by trying to do two or more subjects simultaneously. If the heads of the language and the commercial departments try to assign pupils at the same time, there will be in the hands of the language-department head some envelopes which must later go to the head of the commercial department. The latter is, there-

fore, unable to appraise his situation accurately. One advantage of assembling all envelopes calling for a specific grade and subject is that a class can be discontinued or a new class formed before a single pupil has been assigned. The head of the English department may find, for example, that he has six hundred envelopes calling for English X B but has twenty-two sections set up on the master schedule. If he is expected to run classes of thirty, he can at once discontinue two of the scheduled sections. It is certainly better to discontinue a class a week before it has been formed than to discontinue it a week after the semester has begun. With all envelopes for a grade and subject gathered together, classes of equal size can be set up, but with due attention to a well-balanced program for each pupil.

10. When, day by day on a definite schedule, the heads of departments have completed all assignments, finishing with study halls, the envelopes are returned to the home-room teacher. The teacher, or pupils under his direction, will fill in the missing information on the class cards and put room numbers on the envelopes. If pupils do the work, it will have to be done on the opening morning of the semester.

11. The home-room teacher retains the program envelope and, on the opening morning of the semester, turns over to the pupil the class cards and the small envelope, which serves as a receptacle for cards on the first day and as a program guide thereafter. On the opening day the school operates on a fifteen-minute schedule, and each pupil reports to all classes and study halls to which he has been assigned. At the end of the first session, pupils report back to the home room. In each class they have presented the class cards and have had returned to them the second section properly stamped by the class teacher. These stubs are used by the home-room teacher to verify class enrolments and are then filed in the program envelope.

SOME QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

1. If there is only one section of a subject, such as band or trigonometry, how are conflicts prevented?

A list of such "preferred" subjects is prepared in advance. The band leader sends a list of names of prospective band members to the

office, and program envelopes, with "music" stamped in the proper period for these pupils, are forwarded to the home-room teachers at the time program envelopes are made out for the entire school. Part of the answer, of course, is supplied by an experienced scheduler-maker who anticipates these "conflicts."

2. How is a change made in a program for a pupil who has failed or whose parents request a change of curriculum?

During the first semester the program envelopes are returned to the home-room teacher on Thursday of the last week of school at the same time the marks for the semester come in. If a pupil has failed in Geometry X B, he is no longer entitled to take Geometry X A. During the afternoon of Thursday and forenoon of Friday, the heads of the departments meet in a central place, and home-room teachers may go or send there for program changes. In September these changes are made on the afternoon of the first day of the semester. A home-room teacher, in preparing the original program envelope, may secure for a pupil a short program by blocking off the periods at the end and writing a note of explanation indicating need of early dismissal.

3. How are late enrolments handled?

Pupils of whose entrance the school has had no previous notice report to an assistant principal, who makes out program envelopes. If a large number of such arrivals appear on Monday, they fill out program envelopes under the guidance of counselors and are then sent home. The program envelopes are next carried to the heads of departments, who meet Monday afternoon to make the assignments. Pupils receive their completed programs from their home-room teachers on Tuesday morning. After the first day or two someone in the office makes complete programs for late entrants.

ADVANTAGES OF THE PROCEDURES

1. Adjustments in class size are made in advance.
2. School begins promptly; lessons are assigned on the first day with assurance that more than 90 per cent of the members of the class are present and will remain. Table I shows the success of the plan in assigning new pupils quickly and permanently. On Tuesday morning a teacher in mathematics or English can begin regular work

confident that little change will occur later. Even in history an anticipated increase of three pupils to a class during the first week furnishes no excuse for delay in beginning work. The greatest scheduling difficulty is presented by new pupils who come from the junior high school.

3. Heads of departments can classify pupils according to their probable learning rate or on any other basis with considerable success, especially in those subjects which require a large number of sections.

TABLE I
NUMBER OF PUPILS IN CLASSES ON TUESDAY AND ON FRIDAY
OF OPENING WEEK OF SEMESTER BEGINNING
FEBRUARY, 1933

Subject	Tuesday	Friday	Percentage of Increase
Geometry.....	232	239	3
Commercial arithmetic.....	349	354	2
English.....	556	576	4
Ancient history.....	92	100	9
World-history.....	218	240	10

4. Pupils must go to study hall as well as to regular classes on the opening day. In five semesters pupils have found no way to "beat the system" except through the carelessness of a home-room teacher.

5. The records are simple. The class teacher signs the card once and retains the duplicate. The home-room teacher verifies the class teacher's signature and places the stub in the program envelope.

6. The system transfers much of the burden of program-making from the teachers to the heads of departments with greater resultant uniformity of performance. Every program, made up by a half-dozen or more persons, is impersonal, and the pupil generally accepts it as final. When home-room teachers made the programs from a master schedule, much pressure was brought to bear in favor of short or otherwise desirable programs. Under this plan no charge of favoritism can be maintained, as remote control is not easily affected by the whims of individual pupils.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON GUIDANCE¹

PERCIVAL W. HUTSON^{*}
University of Pittsburgh

The following references have been selected from the literature on guidance appearing in the approximate year-period of June 1, 1933, to May 31, 1934. The definition of the nature and the scope of guidance which has governed this selection of writings is the same as that which was stated in introducing the first of these annual lists, published in the *School Review* a year ago.

The output of the year-period canvassed seems to the writer to have been marked by penetrating analyses of occupational trends. No less significant is the apparent progress in the creation of instruments and in the development of techniques for the detection and the diagnosis of maladjustment. On both of these frontiers sharp advances have been scored.

DISTRIBUTION²

417. BINGHAM, WALTER V. "Abilities and Opportunities," *Occupations*, XII (February, 1934), 6-17.
Some important occupational trends given graphic portrayal and social interpretation.
418. BRECKINRIDGE, SOPHONISBA P. *Women in the Twentieth Century—Their Political, Social, and Economic Activities*. Recent Social Trends Monographs. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1933. Pp. xx+364.
One of the monographs published under the direction of former President Hoover's Research Committee on Social Trends. Part II is an effective analysis and presentation of trends in women's occupations.
419. CLAGUE, EWAN, and POWELL, WEBSTER. *Ten Thousand Out of Work*. Research Study No. 22 of Industrial Research Department of Wharton School of Finance and Commerce. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1933. Pp. xviii+188.

¹ This list is one of a cycle of twenty lists of selected references covering all major aspects of the field of education which is being published co-operatively by the *School Review* and the *Elementary School Journal*.

² See also Item 70 in the list of selected references appearing in the February, 1934, number of the *School Review*.

A study of urban unemployed, demonstrating that the individual worker can do little to solve his own problem of unemployment and that individual thrift is insufficient protection against a long depression.

420. DEMPSEY, MARY V. *The Occupational Progress of Women, 1910 to 1930*. Bulletin of the Women's Bureau, No. 104. Washington: United States Department of Labor, 1933. Pp. vi+90.

An excellent analysis of census statistics, valuable to counselors and teachers of vocations.

421. EARLE, FRANK M. *Psychology and the Choice of a Career*. London: Methuen & Co., Ltd., 1933. Pp. viii+104.

Advocates scientific analysis of individuals and of occupations as the basis for guidance. Reports the contributions of the National Institute of Industrial Psychology of Great Britain.

422. GOOCH, WILBUR I. "Occupational Information," *Occupations*, XII (March, 1934, Section 1), 31-37.

An analysis of "Neglected Fields in the Available Literature," which shows in striking fashion how inadequate and unbalanced is the printed information concerning occupations.

423. HALL, O. MILTON. "How Occupational Trends Are Studied," *Occupations*, XII (February, 1934), 27-42.

A classified, annotated bibliography of 190 titles, with some critical interpretation of problems and accomplishments in the study of occupational trends.

424. HUGHES, W. HARDIN. "Educational Fortune Telling Is a Precarious Process," *Nation's Schools*, XII (July, 1933), 49-54.

A discussion of the value and limitations of intelligence tests for educational prediction. Illustrated by reference to scientific studies graphically presented.

425. HUTSON, PERCIVAL W. "A Dilemma in Vocational Guidance," *School and Society*, XXXVIII (October 28, 1933), 552-58.

Points to the extreme divergence of occupational rewards, our pride in an open-class society, and the difficulty of realizing a soundly reasoned choice of occupation in such a social milieu.

426. KEFAUVER, GRAYSON N. "The Guidance Program and the Distributive Function of Secondary Education," *School and Society*, XXXVII (June 17, 1933), 761-67.

Defines the distributive function of guidance and the conditions which have imposed it on the schools. Outlines the spirit and the methods of its performance.

427. KITSON, HARRY DEXTER. "Vocational Guidance Is Not Fortune Telling: A Reply to Dr. Lorge," *Teachers College Record*, XXXV (February, 1934), 372-76.

Holds that the aim of vocational counselors is not prediction but the mustering of educative forces which contribute to vocational adjustment. (See Item 430 in this list.)

428. LEE, J. MURRAY, and HUGHES, W. HARDIN. "Predicting Success in Algebra and Geometry," *School Review*, XLII (March, 1934), 188-96.
A study in which the predictive value of several different measures was tested.
429. LINCOLN, MILDRED E. "Measuring Outcomes of the Course in Occupations," *Occupations*, XII (December, 1933), 36-39.
Reports the construction and application of tests of vocational and educational information.
430. LORGE, IRVING. "The Chimera of Vocational Guidance," *Teachers College Record*, XXXV (February, 1934), 359-71.
A summary and interpretation of *Prediction of Vocational Success*, by Edward L. Thorndike and Others (Item 442 in this list).
431. MACRAE, ANGUS. *Talents and Temperaments: The Psychology of Vocational Guidance*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1933. Pp. xii+212.
An English scientist presents the fundamental psychological problems of distributive guidance. Summarizes experiments carried out in London and Birmingham to test the effectiveness of vocational guidance given on the basis of tests and systematic procedures.
432. *Occupational Trends in New York City*. Prepared for the Adjustment Service of New York City by the Personnel Research Federation, W. V. Bingham, Director. New York: National Occupational Conference, 1933. Pp. 32.
A statistical analysis. Extended graphic representation.
433. ORLEANS, JOSEPH B. "A Study of Prognosis of Probable Success in Algebra and in Geometry," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXVII (April and May, 1934), 165-80, 225-46.
A summary of efforts to predict success in algebra and geometry, followed by a description of the construction and validation of the Orleans Algebra and Geometry Prognosis Tests.
434. O'ROURKE, L. J. "Scientific Personnel Selection in the United States Civil Service," *Occupations*, XII (April, 1934), 29-39.
Describes, with ample graphic representation, the findings of studies to determine standards for stenographers and typists. The investigations were co-operative projects of the United States Civil Service Commission, various industrial firms, and schools.
435. POND, MILLICENT, and BILLS, MARION A. "Intelligence and Clerical Jobs: Two Studies of Relation of Test Score to Job Held," *Personnel Journal*, XII (June, 1933), 41-56.
The careful study of clerical employees of two large industrial organizations shows that "there is a definite and consistent relationship between intelligence-test scores and advancement in clerical work."

436. PUNKE, HAROLD H. "Migration of High-School Graduates," *School Review*, XLII (January, 1934), 26-39.
A study showing in thoughtful detail the high degree of migration of graduates from high schools in small communities.
437. RICHARDSON, H. D. "The Selective Function of the Secondary School," *School Review*, XLI (November, 1933), 685-92.
Compares the college intention of high-school Seniors with their scholastic achievement and mental ability and urges a program of guidance for selection.
438. SALZ, ARTHUR. "Occupation," *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences*, XI, 424-35. New York: Macmillan Co., 1933.
A broad, fundamental treatment, developed under the secondary captions of "Theory and History" and "Statistics."
439. SLOCOMBE, CHARLES S. "Occupational Distribution—Past and Future," *Personnel Journal*, XII (December, 1933), 198-203.
Certain trends are presented and illustrated by a comparative analysis of workers in the automobile industry in 1910 and 1930.
440. SPARLING, EDWARD J. *Do College Students Choose Vocations Wisely?* Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 561. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933. Pp. vi+110.
Presents a scale of vocational fitness and illustrates its application with students in the first three years of college.
441. STRONG, EDWARD K., JR. "Classification of Occupations by Interests," *Personnel Journal*, XII (April, 1934), 301-13.
With regard to those occupations for which Strong has measured vocational interests, he finds variation in the age at which one acquires interest maturity.
442. THORNDIKE, EDWARD L., and OTHERS. *Prediction of Vocational Success*. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1934. Pp. xxiv+284.
Reports an investigation to determine the predictive value of measures taken at about the age of fourteen. The check-up at ages of twenty and twenty-two indicated that educational future could have been predicted somewhat closely but that vocational success could not have been forecast with much accuracy.
443. TODD, ARTHUR JAMES. *Industry and Society*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1933. Pp. xiv+626.
A penetrating analysis of the worker's world, well calculated to contribute to the counselor's social vision.
444. TUGWELL, REXFORD G. *The Industrial Discipline and the Governmental Arts*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1933. Pp. vi+242.
Valuable in its entirety for its contribution to the social point of view of counselors and other school workers. Chapter iv, "The Rule of Employment," is a direct interpretation of the function and the scope of guidance in economic society.

ADJUSTMENT¹

445. BARDWELL, RICHARD W. "A New Emphasis in Language-Teaching," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXIV (October, 1933), 95-105.
Interesting evidence of the relation between maladjustment and various types of oral-language difficulties. Concrete suggestions for a mental-hygiene approach to language-teaching.
446. BASSETT, CLARA. *Mental Hygiene in the Community*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1934. Pp. 394.
A broad treatment of mental hygiene, organized around its contribution to the effective functioning of a number of social services, one being the school.
447. BERNREUTER, ROBERT G. "The Theory and Construction of the Personality Inventory," *Journal of Social Psychology*, IV (November, 1933), 387-405.
Presents description and evaluation of the Bernreuter Personality Inventory, an instrument for measuring the following four qualities: neurotic tendency, introversion-extroversion, dominance-submission, and self-sufficiency.
448. LOOFBOUROW, GRAHAM C., and KEYS, NOEL. "A Group Test of Problem Behavior Tendencies in Junior High School Boys," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXIV (December, 1933), 641-53.
Describes the construction of a forty-five-minute test, known as the Personal Index, with reliability higher than .90 and validity of about .75. A practical instrument for the identification of boys who are, or are likely to become, serious behavior-problem cases.
449. MORGAN, JOHN J. B. *Keeping a Sound Mind*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1934. Pp. x+440.
A treatise on mental health, well calculated to aid teachers and counselors in recognizing and in coping with many problems of adjustment.
450. STAGNER, ROSS. "Validity and Reliability of the Bernreuter Personality Inventory," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XXVIII (January-March, 1934), 314-18.
This testing of the Bernreuter Personality Inventory on university Freshmen gives the instrument a high rating as a tool in adjustment guidance.
451. THOM, D. A. *Guiding the Adolescent*. Children's Bureau Publication No. 225. Washington: United States Department of Labor, 1933. Pp. vi+94.
A simply written account of the problems of mental hygiene in adolescence.
452. WATSON, GOODWIN. "Character and Personality Tests," *Psychological Bulletin*, XXX (July, 1933), 467-87.

¹ See also Items 325, 326, 339, 354, and 371 in the list of selected references appearing in the May, 1934, number of the *School Review* and Item 142 in the April, 1934, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

A summary and interpretation of the literature appearing in 1931 and 1932. A selected bibliography of 189 titles.

453. WILLIAMS, HERBERT D. "A Survey of Pre-delinquent Children in Ten Middle Western Cities," *Journal of Juvenile Research*, XVII (July-October, 1933), 163-74.
Illustrates how the schools can be used for the discovery of predelinquents.
454. WOODRING, MAXIE N., and METCALFE, ZAIDA F. "The Use of the Interview in the Improvement of Study," *Teachers College Record*, XXXV (March, 1934), 480-92.
An illuminating discussion of the technique of the interview for the special purpose of effecting study adjustment.
455. WRIGHTSTONE, J. WAYNE. "Validity of the Woodworth-Mathews Personal Data Sheet for Diagnosing Certain Personality Disorders," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXV (January, 1934), 39-44.
Demonstrates high validity of this instrument for detecting certain types of maladjustment, such as fears of things, persecution complex, and phobias, for pupils in Grades V-IX, inclusive.

PUBLICATIONS PERTAINING TO BOTH DISTRIBUTION AND ADJUSTMENT¹

- *456. ALLEN, RICHARD D. "Work of the Class Counselor," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, VIII (September, 1933), 12-18.
An intimate description of the activities of a class counselor in the junior high school, particularly emphasizing the function of articulation.
457. ALLEN, RICHARD D., and OTHERS. *Inor Group Guidance Series*. New York: Inor Publishing Co., Inc., 1933 and 1934.
Volume I, *Common Problems in Group Guidance* (pp. xx+186), states sixty questions and gives suggestions for the study of these problems. Volume II, *Case-Conference Problems in Group Guidance* (pp. x+152), presents fifty-two problems, mostly in school citizenship. Volume III, *Self-Measurement Projects in Group Guidance* (pp. xviii+274), is intended to promote self-analysis by pupils. Volume IV, *Organization and Supervision of Guidance in Public Education* (pp. xxii+420), is largely descriptive of the guidance program developed by the author in the schools of Providence, Rhode Island.
458. *The Entire School as an Advisory Agency*. Seventy-fourth Annual Report of the Superintendent of Schools. Milwaukee, Wisconsin: Board of Education, 1933. Pp. 94.
The scope and activities of a city's guidance program, embracing both the distributive and the adjustive phases. Significant for its integration with the larger school program.

¹ See also Item 329 in the list of selected references appearing in the May, 1934, number of the *School Review* and Item 222 in the May, 1934, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

459. FERRISS, EMERY N., GAUMNITZ, W. H., and BRAMMELL, P. ROY. *The Smaller Secondary Schools*, pp. 170-93. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 6. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932.

In the chapter entitled "Pupil Accounting and Guidance," the practices of small high schools are set forth in considerable detail by the use of tables and by the description of the programs of unusual merit.

460. *Handbook for Counselors: Preliminary Draft*. Prepared by the Department of Vocational Guidance. Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania: Pittsburgh Public Schools, 1933. Pp. 98.

A guide for the activities of the counselors of a city school system.

461. KEFAUVER, GRAYSON N., and DAVIS, ALBERT M. "Investigations in Guidance," *Occupations*, XII (November, 1933), 17-25.

A summary and classification of recent guidance literature, a consensus of expert opinion on the relative importance of various lines of investigation, and a classification of guidance investigations in progress.

462. KEFAUVER, GRAYSON N., NOLL, VICTOR H., and DRAKE, C. ELWOOD. *The Secondary-School Population*. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 4. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932. Pp. viii+58.

The nature and the scope of the guidance problem are clarified by this portrayal of the social and intellectual democratization of the secondary-school population.

463. MCKOWN, HARRY C. *Home Room Guidance*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1934. Pp. xxii+448.

The purposes, the administration, and the organization of the home room are treated. Approximately half the book is devoted to a classified compilation of practical suggestions for the group programs of the home room. The suggestions bear on both the guidance and training purposes.

464. PROCTOR, WILLIAM M. "The Pasadena Junior College Program," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, VIII (September, 1933), 28-32.

Describes the organization and the operation of a comprehensive counseling program in a secondary school consisting of Grades XI-XIV.

465. REAVIS, WILLIAM C. *Programs of Guidance*. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 14. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932. Pp. vi+144.

Case reports of the programs of five large cities and five individual high schools, all of which are well known for activities in guidance.

466. SYMONDS, PERCIVAL M. "Every School Should Have a Psychologist," *School and Society*, XXXVIII (September 9, 1933), 321-29.

Able argues that adequate performance of certain important functions can be accomplished only by a psychologist.

Educational Writings

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

Preparing citizens for the difficult years ahead.—From the beginning, it has been the tradition that our country is to be operated by an enlightened citizenry. During the early days, when conditions were simple, the public schools had a rather simple task in conferring the necessary general enlightenment, but, during the last generation particularly, with the expansion of technology and the growth of large-scale corporationism in both public and voluntary enterprise, conditions have become endlessly complex and bewildering. And yet, no less than before, the country has to be operated by its citizens. For clearness of thought and certainty of judgment, they must be as familiar with the complex world of today as they were with the former simple one. The schools, therefore, bear a vastly increased responsibility.

That the schools have not been keeping pace with the needs is proved by the recently demonstrated inability of the population properly to manage its economic, political, and other social affairs. After generations of public schooling, the nation today finds itself in the worst predicament in its long history. Its discernment of the social arrangements that it has contrived is so dim and fragmentary that it sees neither the causes of its present difficulties nor the way out. In its confusedness, it seems nowadays willing to follow any engaging Pied Piper who happens along with a stirring note. It operates chiefly on the basis of its emotions and uses such intelligence as it has in contriving the ways and means to be employed in following routes chosen on the basis of emotions. The proof is complete that the public schools have not been successful in keeping the economic and political enlightenment of the population abreast of its needs.

Recognizing the shortcomings, the American Historical Association, in cooperation with organizations of political scientists, economists, and sociologists, arranged for a Commission on the Social Studies to canvass the situation and to point the way to the necessary improvement in education for social management. After five years of labor under extremely favorable working conditions, provided generously by the Carnegie Corporation, the Commission has rendered its report in a summary volume of *Conclusions and Recommendations*,¹ containing some

¹ *Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission*: Report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934. Pp. xii+168. \$1.25.

twenty-three thousand words, or the equivalent of about seventy-five ordinary book pages. The Commission has done the two things that it would naturally be expected to do: (1) to make clear, as best it can, the kind of society which the oncoming generation of citizens is to operate and (2) to indicate the kind of education required for making the citizens competent in the management of that type of society.

The Commission reiterates with positiveness, and at times with evangelic fervor, that the nation is entering on an age of collectivism. The members are undecided whether this collectivism is to be Fascism, as in Italy and Germany, or communism, as in Russia. They do not use these terms nor name these countries. Their technique throughout the volume is to refer to the collectivism in vague descriptive terms and to point to the "other countries" in whose wake we are supposed to follow, without once naming the countries. The reader is to assume, however, that their vague terms refer to some sort of concrete and visualizable realities; and the only countries which fit into the frame that they provide are those named.

The Commission is certain that the age of economic and political individualism, which is but another term for the age of democracy, is closing. That vicious age, as the Commission sees it, is referred to in terms of bitterness, and the new age of collectivism always in terms of hope and promise.

The passing age of individual self-reliance is dismissed without any consideration of its values or whether it is a thing that should be protected and retained by education. Our democratic traditions are rejected without a hearing as things so out-moded as not to deserve the trouble of re-examination. The Commission lauds science and scientific method but seems to have employed neither. Like the country in general, it seems to have lost its intellectual anchorage and to have been borne forward on the crest of the national orgy of emotion. One can explain sympathetically the irresponsible thought of an insufficiently taught general population in a day of calamity and fear. But what is the explanation when the chosen representatives of the American Historical Association and allied groups cannot hold to the ways of science?

The Commission realizes that, for collectivism, the country must have a profoundly reconstructed educational program. The education of the past prepared for individual initiative and planning; that of the future is to prepare individuals to accept and to co-operate in an era of central initiative and planning by the few wise persons who are yet left in our country. The era of individualism had to aim at a general enlightenment; that of collectivism, whether it be Fascism or communism, must aim at a general indoctrination which will maintain harmony of thought and purpose as the foundation for harmony of practical action.

The Commission recognizes the difficulties and losses in forcing collectivism on the population by means of coercion and regimentation. These difficulties are to be avoided by carefully educating the people for an effective self-regimentation. The Commission would have "thought, ideal, and knowledge" developed in the way that will properly induct the rising generation into the "society now

coming into being" (p. 39). The plan recommended by the Commission is that which is attempted in all the collectivizing nations. They are compelled to educate for submission, for standardized thinking and purposes, for approval of the things that the government tells them to approve, and for the reinforcement provided by emotionalizing the little thought permitted with an abundant religious fervor.

In presenting these ideas, the Commission writes with what seems to be a deliberate vagueness. This vagueness permits one to read into the report almost anything that one wishes to find there. Frequently, as what appears to be but a smoke screen, whether unconscious or not, the Commission waves the flags and proclaims the slogans of "popular democracy and personal liberty and dignity" (p. 13). One can therefore find in the report numerous phrases and passages that contradict the basic doctrines. These also enable the rapid reader (and all persons who read such reports as this read hurriedly) to see in the report what he wants to see.

For preparing 130,000,000 citizens to deal efficiently with the thousand modern social problems, the Commission lays out a program, covering both elementary and secondary levels, in two paragraphs of exactly 456 words. One gets the impression that at this point their ideas were about exhausted. It would be possible for the faculty of any normal school or teachers' college in the land or for any wide-awake committee of elementary-school or high-school teachers to formulate a program that would be both more modern and more adequate. The Commission shows that it is aware of this inadequacy by presenting an alibi several times, both in the body of the report and in the Appendix.

The report is inspiring in an age of power because of the complete ease with which the Commission replans the world and illustrates how giant thought can remake the world almost overnight. Traditions and institutions which have required centuries to build, they obliterate with a few strokes of the pen. Individualism, which appeared so strong yesterday, is vanquished and gone tomorrow. Another notable instance of this power is the way in which the Commission sweeps all our century-old professional training schools into the discard by abolishing "the weaker normal schools and teachers' colleges" (and from the discussion of these assumedly plebeian institutions, one gets the impression that the Commission thinks all are weak) and by uniting the stronger ones with, or by transforming them into, universities, with the vaster thought and power of the latter. Normal schools and teachers' colleges are not to be redeemed by improving them and making them give better service; they are beyond redemption. Only general colleges and universities are, and can be, good enough for training teachers. In this connection, it is interesting to observe that among the sixteen members of the Commission there was not a single representative of the separate normal school or teachers' college. There is no evidence in the report that the conclusions were arrived at after giving the professional training schools a proper hearing. The Commission was able to arrive at all sorts of fundamental decisions without giving anybody, except possibly its friends, a hearing. This plan

seems to be part of the technique of that new day to which the Commission serves as a composite prophet.

The American Historical Association has now an interesting task in popularizing the ideas and recommendations of this astounding document. The reviewer predicts that they will either repudiate it or seek to keep it unnoticed by keeping very silent about it.

Four members of the Commission declined to sign the report. One who signed it did so with reservations which are printed in the Appendix.

FRANKLIN BOBBITT

The reorganized secondary school in the National Survey of Secondary Education.—Some forty-five years ago the attention of the nation's educational leaders was directed to needed reforms in the upper elementary- and secondary-school years. For two decades various aspects of reorganization received consideration. During that period much attention was given to a consideration of the factors involved in reorganization, and occasional experiments were begun to meet new issues. At the end of the period the first of the junior high schools, as the institution is now understood, appeared. The junior high school was to be organized and administered in such a way as to overcome the defects that had fastened themselves on the middle grades; organization was to be based on the mental and the physical characteristics of the pupils; and practices were to incorporate those educational principles the worth of which had been reasonably well established. During the quarter of a century which has elapsed since the first junior high schools appeared, the movement toward reorganization has gained strength.

Since reorganization first began, sufficient time has elapsed to permit and to make highly advisable an investigation to discover what has been gained and to indicate which of the various forms of organization show greatest promise. Such an investigation was made as a part of the National Survey of Secondary Education.¹

If such procedure had been possible, the investigators would have preferred direct measurement and comparison of the outcomes produced by the education and training given in differently organized schools. Instead, indirect measures were used. On the assumption "that there is likely to be a positive relationship between quality of organization and quality of instruction" (p. 2), nine major features of school practice were selected as criteria for judging the effectiveness of school organization. A school was scored for comprehensiveness of organization (the number of arrangements made for carrying out one of its major features) and for its consistency of organization (the extent to which provisions were made for carrying out all its major features). Judgment was based on information received from representative school systems. Comparisons were

¹ Francis T. Spaulding, O. I. Frederick, and Leonard V. Koos, *The Reorganization of Secondary Education*. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 5. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932. Pp. xii+424.

made to show the merits of conventionally organized schools and of reorganized schools and of the different forms of reorganized schools. The first nine chapters are devoted to these comparisons.

To quote conclusions in a summary form is likely to do violence to the meaning expressed by the authors, who have considered every contingency and every factor and have tempered their statements accordingly. The authors of the monograph incline to the belief that schools organized on the 8-4 basis make better arrangements for articulation with the sixth grade, are probably as well organized as are the systems in which the seventh and the eighth grades form the junior high school, are not so comprehensively organized as are 6-3-3 organizations, and are inferior to other types of schools in the consistency with which they carry on their programs. Schools organized with separate three-year junior and senior high schools have more comprehensive programs than do the 8-4 and the 6-2-4 systems but occupy an intermediate position with respect to comprehensiveness and consistency when compared with other types of reorganized schools. Junior-senior high schools are superior to all other types except undivided schools. Large schools tend to be more comprehensively organized than small schools.

Chapter x is devoted to a discussion of practices characteristic of comprehensively organized schools and chapter xi to descriptions of individual schools. Both contain numerous suggestions of a constructive nature. Parts II and III, containing sixty-one pages, are devoted to a statement of the growth of the junior college and to experiments in reorganization. Evidence is presented to show that the present school period may be shortened by one year and possibly more; descriptions are given of the way in which junior colleges formed by a combination of senior high school and junior-college grades have attacked the problem of integrating their programs.

The reader of this monograph will be impressed by the acumen shown by the authors in setting up and using their standards of comparison and by their ability to see the factors which condition the conclusions. He may, like the authors, prefer comparisons based on direct measurements of outcomes of instruction, but in the end he will probably agree that the standards used are as good as any which can be devised at the present time. Irritation may occasionally be felt because of the tediousness of some of the pages, and disagreement with the value placed on some of the practices used to evaluate an educational program. The reader will probably agree with the authors when they caution American educators against assuming that the final solution of the organization of secondary education has been found.

This excellently-planned and ably-conducted investigation has long been needed. The conclusions, impartially drawn after every possible factor has been weighed, may differ considerably from those which many school administrators would have predicted, but they are none the less valuable. The monograph abounds with suggestions for the administrator who seeks to determine the

values of grade organization. Given its proper place, the investigation will stimulate anew the process of careful experimentation in the organization of secondary education.

A. A. DOUGLASS

CLAREMONT COLLEGES, CLAREMONT, CALIFORNIA

How one state controls its schools.—The events of the past few years have created renewed interest in the problems of school control and support. Under the strain of recent economic developments, weaknesses have become evident in many of the legal provisions for school control, as well as in the administrative practices which have been developed during less exacting periods. The difficulties experienced have led to proposals for radical changes in the machinery for the control of education. Educational leaders, both lay and professional, will be aided in considering our present problems and the various proposals for their solution by a reading of a volume which describes the operation of the agencies for school control in Massachusetts.¹

The fact that the present volume describes school control in Massachusetts is fortunate. The traditional decentralization of government in that state, with its close approach to pure democracy in the town meeting, is reflected in the type of school control which the state has developed. Not only is school administration characterized by a high degree of local autonomy, but it is closely aligned with the local government. With few exceptions, the school committees are dependent on the town meetings or city councils for approval of their budgets. School funds are not separated from other funds. The school appropriation is one item in the larger local budget. The school committee does not levy taxes. It usually does not erect its own school buildings and often does not maintain the buildings once they are erected. Such services as health and playgrounds are frequently under the control of agencies other than the school committee. Thus, a study of school control in Massachusetts will supply one with a good example of a close relation between school and municipal or other local government.

The author, in discussing the difficulties arising under present forms of control, assumes the responsibility of the state for education, as well as the desirability of local control. The various suggestions he makes for overcoming difficulties seem to be based on a desire to avoid fiscal independence of school committees and to continue the present close relation between municipal and school government. The treatment given to controversial topics is, in the main, marked by deliberation and caution. It is unfortunate that our store of evidence on such problems as the relative desirability of fiscal dependence and independence forces an author to resort to pure opinion. For example, the statement is made that to give the school committee "complete fiscal independence . . . would be likely to invite extravagance" (p. 142). Experience to date with the two forms of control probably supplies scant basis for this opinion.

¹ L. Leland Dudley, *The School and the Community: A Study of Local Control in the Public Schools of Massachusetts*. Harvard Studies in Education, Vol. 22. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1933. Pp. xiv+176. \$2.50.

This volume will be likely to make of the reader who has had experience with fiscal independence of boards of education and separation of school administration from local government an even more confirmed advocate of independence and separation. It is a little difficult to understand why one who doubts the capacity of a board of education to make wise decisions concerning school expenditures should be willing to leave such decisions to a city council. The author's data with regard to the personnel of the school committees will cause the reader to wonder about the corresponding data for the city councils. While, in general, the author is opposed to fiscal independence, his description of the operation of the Massachusetts system makes a good case for such independence.

Several other interesting aspects of the Massachusetts situation are presented. The control of the building program by municipal authorities has, in the judgment of the author, resulted in a loss of efficiency; yet he is doubtful whether the school committees would have provided more effective plant administration. A careful study of the work of school administration in several cities would go far to establish the competence of the superintendent and the board of education to plan and carry out an effective plant program. The suggestion that the state participate in planning the plant program is timely.

The consideration of the private-school problem is stimulating. If "the best single defense against the growth of private education is good public education" (p. 176), Dudley's description of a particular state system of school control is more than disturbing. At present the state is responsible for education, but its agents, in providing education, tend to be niggardly or inefficient. The control of the city council over appropriations frustrates the efforts of forward-looking school committees and supplies the incompetent or the indifferent committee with an alibi for its failure. It would appear either that the local school committees must be freed to discharge their responsibilities or that the state must itself assume control. The choice of other courses will likely weaken the public schools and promote private-school growth.

The author has produced a readable and a useful treatise, which could well be studied by all interested in school control. It would be highly desirable if a similar volume could be prepared for several other states, particularly those in which the forms of control differ considerably from provisions in Massachusetts.

ERNEST O. MELBY

NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY

The non-athletic extra-curriculum in selected schools.—One of the most significant aspects of the present program of secondary education is the emphasis given to the extra-curriculum, which is now regarded as an integral part of the program of the school. The distinction between the curriculum and the extra-curriculum is breaking down. In this connection Smith states: "With an ideal curriculum there would be no need of an extra-curriculum. The ideal curriculum is as broad as life and as natural as life" (William A. Smith, *Secondary Education in the United States*, p. 342. New York: Macmillan Co., 1932).

The monograph under review¹ is an investigation reporting the present status of non-athletic extra-curriculum activities in 224 schools, so selected as to represent the five regional divisions of the United States, the prevailing types of organization, and the characteristic enrolment groupings of the American secondary schools. The athletic phases of the extra-curriculum are considered in Monograph 27 of the National Survey of Secondary Education (P. Roy Brammell, *Intramural and Interscholastic Athletics*).

The Reavis and Van Dyke study is presented in five chapters. The first chapter is concerned with the development of the extra-curriculum as determined by a study of four individual schools, the records of which date back to the opening of the present century. The second chapter presents a statistical summary of the extra-curriculum practices and procedures in the 224 schools. With the aid of numerous tables and graphs, the organization, the administration, and the supervision of such activities are presented in great detail. Comparisons are made in terms of regional, type, and enrolment groupings—an arrangement making possible a thorough and comprehensive analysis of the data secured.

An intensive study of the organizations in twenty-four selected secondary schools furnishes the material for the third chapter. These schools were visited by the members of the survey staff, and a comprehensive record was obtained of the non-athletic extra-curriculum program in use. In this chapter the authors analyze 606 activities classified into seven groups for purposes of comparison and detailed study.

The provisions with reference to interscholastic contests made in the 224 schools concerned in this study are given in the fourth chapter. The data indicate the types of contests that are sponsored, the extent and the character of pupil participation, and the means of support and control.

In the fifth and final chapter an attempt is made to appraise the extra-curriculum program in terms of the amount of carry-over into college and adult life. This chapter is perhaps the most significant in the study. The information given with reference to the worth and the validity of the extra-curriculum has long been needed, and the findings presented should give encouragement to secondary-school people anxious to provide worth-while school programs.

The present study should furnish the student of secondary education significant information concerning present extra-curriculum practices in progressive schools and should aid school officials in organizing, administering, and supervising extra-curriculum programs. An adequate evaluation of present practices in terms of established principles would have added to the value of the report.

Since the report itself is a summary of findings, it would be impossible to give in the space of this review an adequate summary statement.

WILLIAM R. SMITHEY

UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA

¹ William C. Reavis and George E. Van Dyke, *Nonathletic Extracurriculum Activities*. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 26. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932. Pp. vi+174.

A valuable bibliography of recent educational materials.—The University of Chicago, through the medium of the *School Review* and the *Elementary School Journal*, has assumed an important responsibility which was previously borne by the United States Office of Education but which was discontinued by that office as a measure of "depression economy." The Office of Education had for years published a quarterly *Record of Current Educational Publications*, including both books and articles, classified by subject. These had come to be standard bibliographical aids, and it is fortunate that a way has been found to continue the service.

The monograph which continues this service¹ is a volume bound in paper and reinforced with cloth tape, printed in the format of the *School Review* and the *Elementary School Journal*. The separate divisions of the monograph came out as monthly articles in those journals during 1933. Those articles brought the bibliographies from April, 1932, where the Office of Education stopped, down to varying dates, from October, 1932, to October, 1933, according to the months in which the articles were printed.

The whole field of education has been divided into topical subdivisions, such as secondary-school instruction, educational psychology, statistics and theory of test construction, guidance, higher education, preschool and parenta leducation, elementary-school instruction, and so on. These are so arranged and timed that the entire cycle of subjects has been covered once, and the whole brought together into a single permanent volume.

As to content, or choice of works listed, there seem to be a more careful selection and a tendency to a more critical evaluation than were found in the United States Office of Education publications. The effort has been to assemble the best rather than to list everything that could be found. Each list has been compiled by a nationally known authority in the field covered. A few names chosen at random are Koos, Lyman, Tryon, Breslich, Holzinger, Kefauver, Abel, Brueckner, Gray, and Buswell. Each reference is briefly and expressively annotated, so that its scope of usefulness for a given purpose is easily ascertainable.

The idea is a good one, and the execution of it is of a high type.

C. C. CRAWFORD

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY AND PRACTICE

BURTON, WILLIAM H. *Introduction to Education*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1934. Pp. xiv+834. \$3.00.

CLARK, FELTON G. *The Control of State-supported Teacher-training Programs for*

¹ *Selected References in Education, 1933*. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 41. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1934. Pp. x+190.

- Negroes*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 605. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934. Pp. vi+114. \$1.50.
- CLARKE, HELEN. *The Professional Training of the Hospital Dietitian*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 602. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934. Pp. iv+96. \$1.50.
- Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission*: Report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934. Pp. xii+168. \$1.25.
- CUBBERLEY, ELLWOOD P. *Readings in Public Education in the United States: A Collection of Sources and Readings To Illustrate the History of Educational Practice and Progress in the United States*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1934. Pp. xviii+534. \$2.50.
- DEYOE, GEORGE P. *Certain Trends in Curriculum Practices and Policies in State Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 606. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934. Pp. vi+104. \$1.50.
- DONNELLY, FRANCIS P. *Principles of Jesuit Education in Practice*. New York: P. J. Kenedy & Sons, 1934. Pp. xiv+206. \$2.00.
- DOUGLASS, HARL R., and BOARDMAN, CHARLES W. *Supervision in Secondary Schools*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1934. Pp. xvi+564. \$2.75.
- FELDMAN, W. T. *The Philosophy of John Dewey: A Critical Analysis*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1934. Pp. viii+128. \$1.75.
- FINNEY, ROSS L., and ZELENY, LESLIE D. *An Introduction to Educational Sociology*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1934. Pp. vi+342. \$2.40.
- HAMLEY, HERBERT RUSSELL. *Relational and Functional Thinking in Mathematics*. Ninth Yearbook of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934. Pp. 216.
- KOON, CLINE M. *Motion Pictures in Education in the United States: A Report Compiled for the International Congress of Educational and Instructional Cinematography*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1934. Pp. xvi+106. \$1.00.
- McKEE, PAUL. *Language in the Elementary School: Spelling, Composition, and Writing*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1934. Pp. xii+482. \$2.00.
- MORRISON, HENRY C. *Basic Principles in Education*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1934. Pp. iv+452. \$2.50.
- MURSELL, JAMES L. *Human Values in Music Education*. Newark, New Jersey: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1934. Pp. 388. \$2.40.
- MURSELL, JAMES L. *Principles of Education*, pp. xii+506, \$2.75; *A Workbook in Principles of Education*, pp. iv+140, \$1.25. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1934.
- PETERS, DAVID WILBUR. *The Status of the Married Woman Teacher*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 603. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934. Pp. vi+98. \$1.50.
- POWERS, FRANCIS F., and UHL, WILLIS L. *Psychological Principles of Education*. New York: Century Co., 1933. Pp. xvi+570.

- RATHBONE, JOSEPHINE LANGWORTHY. *Corrective Physical Education*. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1934. Pp. 292. \$2.50.
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